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THE CHILD'S CRUSADE

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with sincere respect
and esteem
W. H. Beckford.

THE CHILD'S CRUSADE

THE WAND DRILL—WORK AND PLAY

THE CHILD'S CRUSADE

BY

WILLIAM HALE BECKFORD

PHILADELPHIA
THE HALLOWELL PRESS
1916

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THE CALL OF THE CHILD.

Foreword

"YEA," SAITH HOLY STEPHEN, "WE SHALL CONQUER WHERE OUR FATHERS HAVE FAILED. BEFORE US THE WATERS SHALL DIVIDE; THE WALLS OF JERUSALEM SHALL FALL DOWN, AS DID THOSE OF JERICHO BEFORE JOSHUA. THE BATTLE IS THE LORD'S; LET US FOLLOW HIS BANNER, AND WE SHALL SURELY DRIVE THE PAYNIM FROM THE HOLY LAND."

Such the stirring appeal that rang through France and Western Europe in the early summer of 1212, year of grace. At Easter the swift vision had come to Stephen of Cloyes, a fourteen-year-old lad, as he tended his sheep on a hillside in the Loire valley.

In the afternoon shadows there stood before him a dark pilgrim form, with garments dust-stained from a long journey. To the boy's eager thought the pilgrim drew a sad picture of the Christians in Palestine and the sepulchre in Moslem hands. Then he bade Stephen summon all the children to renew the crusade their fathers had foresworn.

As, with his fiery message, Stephen sped through the land, tacit approval of both church and king was given the boy-prophet. He soon marshalled on the plain of Vendome an army of near forty thousand children, most of them between eight and fifteen. Then they marched down the Rhone valley, singing joyous psalms and with banners agleam.

Many of the tots fell by the way—to starve and die—but the ranks were soon filled with new recruits. Upon reaching Marseilles the children halted for a time at the edge of the sea, while Stephen prayed that the

waters might divide and yield them safe passage to the Holy Land.

Meanwhile, at Cologne, a second army about as large as the first, had gathered from Germany and the Low Country. A ten-year lad, Nicholas, essayed to lead it up the course of the Rhine and across the Alps to Italy. Within a few weeks more than half the band were strewn among the passes and defiles, frozen or torn by wild beasts, while an alien people looked on—unmoved.

A third of this army pressed through to the Lombard plains, where the girls and most of the boys were soon lost in the slews of the medieval towns. Of the survivors who reached Rome and were told by Pope Innocent III to turn back and wait until they were grown up—then fulfill their vows—it is said that a few hundred saw their homes again.

After vain waiting for the waters to divide Stephen's army also began to melt away. At that moment two strange merchants from Marseilles appeared, who offered to transport the children across the sea in seven ready vessels. Hailing this as a miracle, five thousand went gaily on board, but they never reached Palestine. Taken direct to Algiers and Egypt, the young crusaders were sold as slaves to the Moslems they went forth to conquer. Thirty years later one surviving priest, who had been with the band, returned and bore witness to their fate.

A brief relieving touch is given this dark picture by the record that, some years after the children disappeared, Frederick of Sicily captured the two slave traders—who bore the portentous names of Hugo Ferreus (Iron-Handed) and William Porcus (the Swine)—and hung them. as pirates, from the yard arm of their own vessel.

So this army of children vanished with hopes unfulfilled. In the black-letter-chronicles of the day one can easily discern traces of the same superstition, cruel indifference and greed that have embittered childhood at all periods. It was similar fanaticism that led Hindu mothers, even until recent times, to cast their offspring to sacred crocodiles in the Ganges. This fanaticism inspired the priests of Moloch to throw year-old infants, expiating parental sins, into the fiery breast of their god. The chosen people themselves did not hesitate to dash the young of their enemy upon the stones; while among the cultured of Greece and Rome the exposure of helpless and decrepit children to wild beasts was a common practice.

THE NEW VISION

Another and larger vision of the rights of childhood came to thoughtful minds in the early part of the last century. As the revolutionary tides subsided, it dawned upon social workers of England and the Continent that there could be no permanent reforms so long as the child-life of the nation was crushed in mines and factories, or defiled in the city slums.

Out of this agitation to rescue the oppressed children grew more just and sane factory laws, accident and old-age pensions, with better conditions for men and women workers, not alone in England, but Europe as well.

As this movement to safeguard children took definite form, Mrs. Browning, in 1842, wrote its Declaration.

Her appeal:—

"Do ye hear the children weeping, O my brothers,
Ere the sorrows come with years?"

remains to this day the most spirited and inclusive statement of the rights of universal childhood.

The child-movement gained little attention in this country until the last century drew to a close.

Then, with the rapid growth of American cities and commercial greed, the evils of child-labor were quickly shown, as well in factory districts of the South, where white peonage prevailed among child-operatives as in New England cotton-mills, the coal-mines of Pennsylvania, or New York canneries. In most States strict laws to prevent the exploitation of children have been passed since 1900. With the creation of the **National Child Labor Committee,** in 1904, plans to secure uniform protective laws in all States for the child-worker have been wrought steadily into fact.

The true way to restore children adrift or defective was revealed with the institution of the **Juvenile Courts.** No waif is now treated as a criminal; rather is led back into the right path by new motives and environment. With special courts for children have come the probation system, mind clinics, the detention home and school republic—all evidencing a new era for the child.

A third milestone of this swiftly advancing crusade has been the **Playground.** The cry of pent-up city children first called the nation's thought to the value of wholesome, out-of-door play. It is fairly estimated that in a decade (since 1905) more than one hundred million dollars have been spent by American cities to provide the children with rational, character-building amusements. This spells far more than the happiness and physical strength ensuing, important as these are; there has been aroused at the same time a new sense of civic worth and honor, with unmeasured power to transform teeming city-life into higher social values.

In close alliance with the new play-spirit have come quickening influences in public-school work.

Teacher and parent have been brought into social contact, while their concerted efforts for the child have been throwing new life on the relations of home and school. In emphasis given to vocational guidance a long step has been taken forward to the time when every child shall be fitted to take a useful place in the community.

A grim and far-cast shadow has fallen for the moment over the path of these advancing crusaders. In congested American cities, the plague of **Infant Mortality** aroused in recent years much keen apprehension. The records that showed one child of every three born in these cities dying within its first year inspired at once a wealth of philanthropic effort. With the leadership of a new type of efficient woman remedial work has gone far to check this plague and to indicate its ultimate suppression. The better-baby campaigns have meant reconstruction of the slums in many cities.

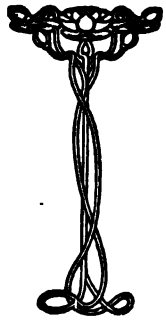
With a view to co-ordinate the varied activities of this child-saving crusade, Congress established, in 1912, the **Federal Children's Bureau.** Its chief power is to investigate:

> All matters that affect the welfare of children, including infant mortality; the birth rate; juvenile courts; dangerous occupations, diseases and employment of children, and any legislation concerning their rights in the several States and Territories.

This nation-wide research must throw convincing light upon dark and hitherto unexplored phases of the child-problem. It should soon annul the charge, now justly urged, that the nation willingly spends large sums to conserve the animal and plant industries, but little to safeguard its children.

Childhood has always been beautiful and men have loved their own children. It is in a changed attitude toward the universal child—care for the other man's children—that one can discern the outlines of a new social order.

Listen! can you hear the tramp of myriad, tiny feet, as the children march up through the fertile valleys to the gates of the city, waving their gay banners and prepared at length to take possession of their Promised Land?



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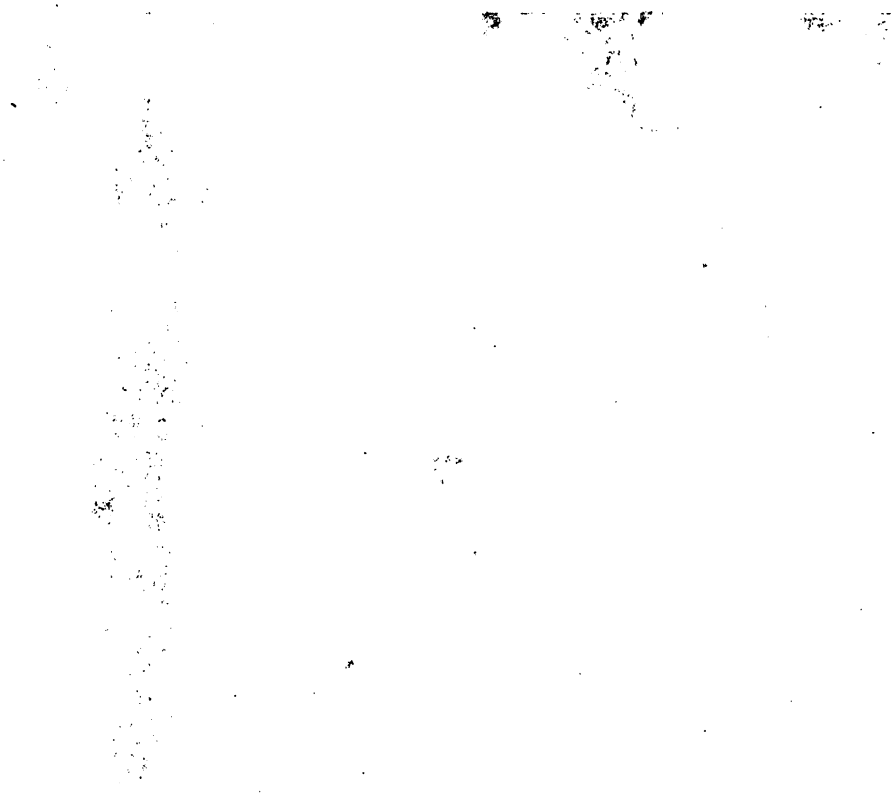

3,243,958 Babies in the Civilized World
die during their first year of life.
1/4 of all the dead who die in the registration area, are dead before they reach their second, year.
Of every five babies born, one dies during the first year.
About one half of this loss is preventable!
What will you do about it?
"Out of 100 bottle-fed babies 50 die!"
"Out of 100 breast fed babies 7 die!"
What can you do about it?
Nurse your baby.
Dont feed baby just because it cries; feed baby at regular hours.
Keep the baby clean and dry.
Give the baby plenty of water.
Demand pure food for yourself as well as for the baby.
Try the fresh air cure.
What can you do about it?
Screen the windows and doors and baby's crib.
Remove the filth.
Clean up your back yard.
Keep baby away from sick children.
Read the Baby Saving pamphlet on "The Care of the Baby."
Obey Health Law.

"HOW OFTEN THEY DIE"

See Appendix

Chapter I.

THE CHILD AT BIRTH.

DR. OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES, most genial of autocrats, often gave this familiar advice to parents: **"You want a healthy child—then, begin a hundred years back. Train its ancestors."**

As men glimpse the meaning of pre-natal (or so-called hereditary) influence, a truer concept of childhood and its needs becomes possible.

In its sub-conscious life each child has accumulated instincts, habits of thought, impulses—that go far to mould its career, especially at the start. "Unto the third and fourth generation," ran the scripture, are sins visited upon the children; do the virtues have less enduring vitality?

Eugenics—with new phrasing of old-time facts—aims to secure for each child the chance to be well-born through a wise parental selection. Sparta thus limited marriage to the psysically fit and produced the sturdiest race in Greece. What may seem artificial plans to control marriage might become a natural selection through better understanding of the nature of parenthood.

Careful instruction of the parents implies thorough preparation for the moment of birth. All authorities unite to stress the importance of this crucial moment. As the stage, at the beginning, is set for the play of life, so run the later acts, unless the child has most exceptional power to overcome adverse tendencies.

Poised at the mountain's crest, the falling raindrop is deflected by a breath of air to a stream leading

either to the Atlantic or Pacific. Many a child bears tragic evidence for life of what seemed trifling carelessness at the birth-moment.

Organic forms, as they grow more complex, become increasingly sensitive to external conditions; of all known organisms, the embryonic or new-born child seems to be most quickly, permanently shaped by its initial environment.

Around the birth-moment earlier traditions threw a veil of myth and superstition. With its searching analysis, modern science has not yet revealed exact or adequate terms to describe the primordial germ-cell which contains within itself the future man as the acorn contains the tree. But this much is known—**that influences brought to bear upon the developing, embryonic cell during the nine-months' pre-natal period, and for a year or so immediately after birth have potent, compelling force that reaches through the entire, individual life and to generations that follow it.**

Mortality of Infants.

With vaunted increase of intelligence in this country, the death of babies in American cities has become an increasing shame and menace. Im molation of the new-born is, in fact, the chief curse of our crowded centers of population.

While it is true the high death-rate chiefly prevails in districts occupied by newly-arrived immigrants, the vicious, unsanitary conditions that brought this about have been tolerated, sometimes encouraged, by native-born officials, profiting through protected vice, as well as by property-owners who reaped larger rentals.

Even callous officials were startled when the death-rate of infants under one year of age reached the high percentage of **three hundred and seventy-three** out of every **thousand** born in these congested

districts. Then, the swift lowering of the death-rate that followed a scientific care of the first-year babies, with better food and housing, made it evident that these deaths were due to sheer negligence.

The same, unavoidable conclusion was the result of a nation-wide canvass to ascertain the causes of child-mortality, set afoot by the Federal Children's Bureau soon after its institution in April, 1912. Summarizing the results of a probe that reached every registration area in the country, Miss Julia C. Lathrop, chief of the bureau, made this emphatic statement:—

> **"Of 300,000 babies under one year of age dying yearly in the United States, at least 150,000 could be saved by the application of methods with which, as a people, we are already well acquainted."**

This brought the indictment home to both parent and community. So long as a city or section of it pays such annual tribute of its children to Moloch, the charge of complicity in social murder may be justly urged against every one responsible for the conditions fatal to infant-life. The facts in the case would not be so damning, were both cause and remedy not so obvious.

Under pressure of vicious conditions in the modern city even maternal-instinct, the most conservative of race-forces, gives way completely. The scandal of "baby-farms" has outvied the earlier records of foundling asylums.

During a legislative investigation of 1913, these facts, as elicited and sent across the country in an Association Press dispatch, reflected conditions prevalent in many cities:—

> Chicago, April 18.—Inhuman conditions at "baby farms" in Chicago were revealed today in the Illinois House Committee's investigation of maternity homes and institutions. They were such as to cause Chairman Thomas Curran to declare that dealing in babies is the "most dastardly business existing."
>
> It was shown that mothers contract for the disposal of infants before birth, signing an agreement which ends:
>
> "I promise and declare I will never see said child, but do release and abandon it forever."
>
> They learned that babies are shipped out of the State when only a few hours old, and their mothers hired out to nurse infants of the wealthy. No inquiry is ever made whether the babies live or die.

A lower depth of commercialized vice than is revealed in this report could hardly be conceived. Extinguishing the mother-instinct means an end of the race.

Apparently the purpose of most of these baby-sales was to permit the callous mothers to serve freely as wet-nurses for profit. But whether legitimate or illegitimate, the child was abandoned without further thought. The "baby-farm" disposed of it.

Infant mortality in these murder-houses is usually one hundred per cent. Only by sheer accident does a child survive.

Conditions that have led to such phenomena emphasize the dominant thought that now animates health officials and social workers alike in their efforts to save the lives of babies, namely—**to concentrate upon the prospective mothers,** ensuring them both the instruction and safe-guarding essential to properly usher a child into the world.

The Crusade in Motion.

It was a moment worth history's noting when, in 1908, the city of New York established the **first municipal bureau** devoted to the hygienic care

of children. The Child Hygiene Division—as a branch of the Department of Health—was placed under command of Dr. S. Josephine Baker, an exemplar of the new, efficient womanhood—that leads. Things began to move at once, and babies, on the lower East Side, where remedial efforts were concentrated, stopped dying in large numbers.

The work began by holding conferences for all mothers in the district invaded; then came "follow-up" visits by the district nurses, with new infant milk stations and Little Mothers' Leagues.

Thousands of expectant mothers flocked to the schoolrooms, recreation piers and playground buildings, where skilled physicians explained the details of pre-natal care of infants, sanitation of the home, proper feeding, cleanliness, exercise and growth of the baby. Lantern slides lent force to the doctor's words, while trained nurses gave practical demonstrations. Many native as well as foreign-born mothers learned for the first time how to take proper care of themselves during the pre-natal period and just the kind of home the new-coming baby ought to have.

Follow-up visits to the home were made by district nurses until each mother understood and practiced the right hygienic methods. After birth each baby was visited once in ten days; oftener, if ill or delicate. A physician, assigned to a group of three nurses, held daily consultations with them, each sick child receiving immediate attention; the card record of its progress was kept at the district office.

During the summer (always the most fatal period), from May to September, 1911, the nurses of the Child Hygiene Division had under continuous control 16,987 babies less than one year of age. There was a total of 238 deaths, or 1.4 per cent. The cost of the work amounted to **fifty cents a month** for each baby.

Exact monetary value of a baby's life could not be stated in the specific case. But estimated on industrial earnings and the insurance risk average valuation of the life of an infant under one year of age is placed at $100.

As the death list of infants under one year, in New York, before the child-hygiene campaign began exceeded 16,000 annually, this meant an economic loss of more than $1,600,000 a year. Further investigation by the New York Milk Committee showed that average cost of medical attendance and funeral services for each baby that died was $50. Computing both factors the economic waste from this mortality in New York alone was more than **two million dollars** a year.

Monetary loss is a minor fact. The saving of human anguish and conserving the actual life of the race from such a campaign are beyond computation in dollars. At the same time it is well to note that the actual cost of saving the baby's life is much less than the loss involved in allowing it to die.

To reduce the death-rate of year-old infants in congested sections of New York from 373 to 14 per thousand cost the city, on an average, **fifty cents** per month for each baby saved. In 1911, the budget of the Child Hygiene Division was $390,000; the impressive record of that year led to an increase of the annual appropriation to $600,000. Even with this generous allowance only a part (about half) the city could be reached.

In three years (from 1908 to 1911) the child mortality rate in New York was reduced 54 per cent., more than confirming the Federal Bureau estimate of the proportion of children that could be saved by reasonable care. Much stress was laid upon the economic side of this work at the time Congress established the Federal Children's Bureau in 1912.

Other cities were aroused to the importance of systematic child-saving by the progress made in New York.

It was inspiration from this campaign that led the Woman's Municipal League, of Boston, to send visiting nurses into the homes of expectant mothers during the pre-natal period. By careful attention to health rules, 1111 patients were carried safely through the confinement. Not a single patient died; there were only three miscarriages. The birth-weight of the babies, under this pre-natal watching, ranged from 8 to 15 ounces above the usual average of 7 pounds—so, both mother and child profited.

This work anticipates the time when pre-natal care of mothers must become as thorough and painstaking as is now the care at child-birth. To treat motherhood as a sacred function the community must share responsibility and see to it that no expectant mother is deprived of the safe-guarding and instruction essential to her own welfare and that of the future child. While community work is supplemental to that of the home, it is imperative if the race is to continue or improve. According to the Boston plan to send visiting nurses to the homes throughout the pre-natal period involved an expenditure of $5 to $6 per patient for the full term. As this ensured safe delivery in more than ninety per cent. of the cases the cost seems inconsiderable.

To further plan for pre-natal care, a new form of birth insurance has been proposed providing stated weekly payments to the mother for some months before and after confinement. This plan, in many cases, would conserve self-respect and relieve industrial mothers from hard toil, anxiety and lack of nourishment at the time when they need all their strength for maternity. It would lessen the danger of miscarriage—or early death of the child that often results from sub-normal conditions of the mother. Even

when the child survives, in such cases it is often crippled for life.

With certain merits, the insurance plan can at the best be palliative. The mothers' pension fund should, doubtless, be so extended as to include the pre-natal period. For there is something radically false and self-destructive in a social system that drives expectant mothers to the factory tread-mill, with the result that little children are either crippled or destroyed at birth. Yet it is true still that mothers in many factory towns and in tenement shops work up to the very day and within a day or two after the confinement.

The social worker and visiting nurse alike find the pre-natal period a most opportune time to impress upon the parents facts concerning their responsibility for the offspring. It is not difficult, with the child in prospect, to show how bad habits will be inevitably reflected in the body of the child—that drunkard, feeble-minded or depraved parents will surely reproduce their kind.

Swift changes in sanitary and moral habits take place. This is often true with young parents at the advent of the first child. Nothing in a true marriage so tends to strengthen the tie as genuine love for the child. Under proper guidance this innate affection becomes the strongest inspiration toward the making of a good home, with the essential comforts, cleanliness, correct ideals and instruction for the nascent life. Thus, the little child may lead the parents for the first time to glimpse the value of a good character, self-restraint, persistent and sensible habits. In creating a true home for their child, the parents find themselves and a higher life purpose than they could otherwise have known.

Control of Midwives.

The irresponsible Sairy Gamp has been found a difficult factor to deal with in reducing infant mortality and making a better environment for the new-born child. In many cities, especially among the foreign-born, the midwives direct from forty to fifty per cent. of the child-births. They also abound in various rural districts.

Often careless and illiterate, these ancient sponsors of child-birth flourish where the death-rate is highest. Their stupid, unsanitary methods have helped the plague along; some of their grosser superstitions form an interesting phase of literature, viewed as curiosities.

Massachusetts, many years ago, abolished midwives altogether. They disappeared until the immigrant tides from Austria, Russia and Italy brought a new consignment; since then they have been suppressed a second time for the most part.

As it seemed impossible to eliminate them in New York a law was passed (in 1907) regulating their practice. They are now given a license for a limited period, after strict examination. They must report every birth, as soon as it takes place, to the Health Department. The licensed midwives are permitted to attend only cases of normal labor.

Should a midwife fail to observe any rule of the Health Board, the license is immediately taken away. By this means a standard of cleanliness, hitherto unknown, has been attained, and the more difficult cases receive prompt medical attention. It has followed that cases of still-birth have been much reduced; also those of puerperal fever, and of deformity or blindness in the child. Where a midwife is found practicing without a license she is subject to arrest.

Beyond these first steps, a school for midwives has been instituted and in many communities they are now trained to a standard corresponding to that

of the skilled nurse. When they reach this status of expert medical assistants, they become, in fact, a part of the great company of present-day social workers, known as nurses.

Until this period is reached, even the lesser trained midwives may perform some temporary functions, aiding the infirm mother with the housework, and interpreting the important health rules to those who speak only foreign tongues. But the day of the irresponsible "old-wife" has passed; with the introduction of safe methods a scientifically trained nurse must take her place.

First Hour—Cleanliness.

As the baby enters the world, its first, imperative need is to be made entirely free from traces of its preceding environment. **Perfect cleanliness** is conceded to be the **first hygienic** rule for the care of the new-born.

Health authorities agree that, taking the total of 70,000 blind persons in the United States, more than half the number might have been spared the affliction if given well-defined, routine treatment at the time of birth. Sore eyes in the new-born ("opthalmia neonatorum") rarely occurs when the eyes have been properly cleansed immediately succeeding birth and the simple precautions are taken familiar to the physician or trained nurse. As soon as the child breathes, the accepted plan is to wipe each eye clear with absorbent cotton that has been saturated in a ten per cent. boric acid solution, a separate pledgett of cotton being used for each eye; the wiping is to begin at the bridge of the nose, extending outward across the lashes until all the foreign material has been removed. The nose and mouth should be cleansed with another piece of

Prevention of Blindness.

absorbent cotton in the same way and at the same time. All the cotton pledgetts are then burned.

Should any further soreness develop in the eyes, each caretaker or midwife is required by law to report the case at once to a physician or the Health Board. It is highly important, in all such cases, that skilled treatment should be given the eyes without delay.

An eminent authority, Dr. Samuel G. Dixon, Commissioner of Health in Pennsylvania, thus tersely sums up the situation:—

"Two minutes of time and two cents' worth of medicine can save seventy years of blindness to thousands of infants."

Pennsylvania set a good example to other States by enacting a law, in 1895, that compels every midwife or caretaker in charge of a confinement to report at once to a physician or health official any case of inflamed eyes occurring within two weeks of the child-birth. This avoids the delay that so often proves fatal to the eyesight. Through vigorous enforcement of this law and wide distribution of literature upon allied phases of infant hygiene, large results have been accomplished in Pennsylvania in the prevention of "opthalmia neonatorum," with its resulting blindness.

The Department of Health in New York City made it an important factor of its child-saving work to provide free of charge to all midwives and caretakers a one per cent. solution of silver nitrate, furnishing a small beeswax tube that held six drops of the solution; each container to be used in only one case.

Upon piercing the end of these tubes with a needle one drop of the solution appeared. After cleansing by the prescribed process, the eyelids of

the new-born child were gently opened, and two drops of the silver nitrate dropped into each eye. The result of this treatment in New York was virtually to eliminate this most frequent cause of blindness. After careful trial for three years the records of children within that age suffering from blindness showed that there were only six cases that could be traced to **opthalmia neonatorum,** or "sore-eyes."

Such testimony upon a single phase of hygienic treatment illustrates the importance of thorough, scientific cleanliness. It should be applied to every detail of the infant life to ensure its starting under right conditions.

First Day—Food.

Next to cleanliness follows the imperative need, in order that the child may thrive, that it have proper food.

More infants die during the early months from various forms of malnutrition than from all other known causes combined. The rapid changes that follow the substitution of correct for improper feeding, justify the stress laid by health authorities on this phase of child-saving.

It would appear that nature has no real substitute for the mother's milk. Of 100 bottle-fed babies under one year of age 50 die of malnutrition, while of 100 breast-fed babies only 7 die in the same period. Even if it survives, the bottle-fed baby often carries to the grave some structural weakness due to its mother's failure to provide it with proper food—breast milk.

It is a fortunate child, then, that can turn after the fourth hour to its mother's breast. Good authorities say there are few mothers that, with a little care and patience, could not nurse their own children. To deny the child the proper food not only lessens its

chance of life, but weakens the mother. She pays the penalty in disordered functions.

Each visiting nurse begins, therefore, by urging the mother to nurse her own child. Savage mothers need no such instruction. It is a refinement of the so-called "civilization" to expose infants to death by denying them the food provided in the natural way. For, where the baby dies of marasmus, unable to assimilate artificial food, it literally starves in the midst of plenty.

If no means avail, however, to give the child breast-feeding, it becomes of first importance that fresh cow's milk (the nearest substitute) be furnished clean and pure, in the form adapted to the infant's stage of growth. Even though untainted, this secondary food may prove too rich or too thin, deranging the sensitive baby-stomach, as it begins it struggle for life.

Infant Milk Stations.

Exposed milk deteriorates and loses food value so rapidly that it has been found essential, in the larger cities, to establish infant milk stations to keep many of the babies from starving. These prove life-saving stations for thousands of infants; they also train mothers in the best ways to keep their babies well. They originated in private philanthropy, but now form an important branch of the municipal service in various cities. The ideal milk station dispenses good food for the babies at cost, with medical attendance for both mothers and child; its lecture-rooms and clinics are open to mothers of the neighborhood for conference and advice at all seasons.

The earliest station of this type was opened at Paris, by Dr. Variot, in 1892. The plan became popular and spread through France to other European countries, including Spain, Italy, Germany and England.

Nathan Straus was the pioneer in America. His first milk station on the lower East Side, New York, was opened in 1893. Nine, soon established, showed such good results that the New York Milk Committee was organized and put 31 other stations at work in various parts of the city. When the Child Hygiene Division began its work, in 1908, there were sixty-four milk stations conducted by private agencies; the city in two years added 55 additional stations, mostly on the lower East Side.

By the year 1911 the results were convincing. The mortality of year-old infants in 1910 had been 16,215; in 1911 this was reduced to 15,033, or a saving of 1182 babies; again, in 1912, the deaths were reduced to 14,628, a further saving of 765. Within two years nearly 2000 babies had been saved—about one-eighth the total death loss prevailing at the time the work began. During the same period the population of the city and its general death rate were steadily increasing. The record of the Child Hygiene Division was, therefore, the more distinctive and the percentage of lives saved might have been still larger had the funds been sufficient to extend the campaign to the entire city.

The main fact, of historic moment, is that for the first time a great city had taken in hand the systematic saving of its little children exposed to death through bad environment and home negligence. The immediate result was at least two thousand homes made happier and a large number of parents instructed in the right ways to start training their children for health and usefulness.

To those who regard it as socialistic for the State to interfere with the parent in home care of the child, it may be pointed out that the State's continuance itself depends upon the safe-guarding of child-life,

and that there are forms of official, as well as parental, negligence that amount, even in a strict legal sense, to crime.

During the year 1912 there were under supervision at these stations, 17,999 year-old infants, of whom only 76 died. The annual birth-rate in New York City is about 134,000, and before the child-hygiene campaign began the year-old infant deaths averaged 16,000. If the same thorough methods of providing good food and nursing, given to part, could have been extended to the entire 134,000 first-year infants of the city, the proportional saving would have meant 566 instead of the 16,000 deaths.

An interesting test, confirmatory of the vital relation between food supply and the child death-rate, was made by the Rockefeller Institute, in New York. Of 70 children fed with condensed milk, the mortality was 20 per cent.; of same number fed on ordinary store milk the mortality was 19 per cent.; the death-rate of 70 babies fed on bottled milk was 9 per cent., when the same number of babies were fed with modified milk from the city milk stations the rate was reduced to 2.7 per cent.

The fight to keep babies alive has not been limited to large cities. In several French towns, the latest type of infant milk stations were introduced in 1905. Immediate reduction of the child death-rate followed. At Villeneuvre-sur-Yonne the rate fell, in one year, from 163 to 32 deaths per 1000. This was for the entire town; of the infants fed from the milk stations not one died. Surrounding towns without milk stations showed a child death-rate, respectively, of 176, 163 and 117 per 1000. At Sens the child mortality fell, after introducing the milk stations, from 116 to 47; at Ville de Toucy from 197 to 50; at Auxerre from 205 to 60. Towns adjacent to the last-named, and without milk stations, showed at the same time a child mortality of 120, 157 and 214 per 1000.

WAIF SAVED BY CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY
Four Months after Change from Bottle-feeding to Wet-nursing

One economist has worked out a plan which would ensure an adequate supply of pure milk for all the babies in New York City through a private endowment fund of $5,000,000. The trend of the best thought today is to centralize all measures affecting the public health in the hands of the municipal authorities; applying business methods should ensure an economical distribution and a uniform, imperative standard in the food supply vital to health.

No part of the milk station's service is more important than careful **modification** of the milk into the form best adapted for each dual baby, at his exact stage of progress. But however carefully the food is modified or prepared, there are, in the last resort, desperate cases that no artificial food appears to help. Two accompanying photographs (opposite) picture the condition of a baby rescued at the point of death by the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania, and the same child after only four months of regular **breast feeding.** Such human documents indicate why charitable agencies, rescuing babies whose mothers have abandoned them, use every means to secure a good wet-nurse at once for the child. Such documents also indicate the importance of educating mothers. Not until social and economic conditions make it possible for each mother to give adequate care to the new-born child herself will the infant mortality plague be completely checked.

It is insensate folly to produce offspring and then allow them to starve at once. This gives amplest ground for community supervision over the food supply of the child.

First Year—Growth.

Infancy is evanescent. The baby's growth in the first year is thrice that of any other period. It either grows rapidly or sinks into marasmus. The weekly weight-record is a thermometer of the baby's health.

To grow, each child should have **plenty** of fresh air, sleep, proper clothing and exercise, supplementing the right food. If **all** these are not present, or not well adjusted, the child stops growing; then soon withers.

At the beginning of the child-saving campaign in New York it was found essential to enlist the aid of the "Little Mothers" of the tenements. This situation arose from the fact that many of the mothers, having to go out to work, would leave the babies in care of the older girls, usually from ten to fourteen in age. With all kindness and desire to help, the inexperience of these young caretakers added a large quota to the death list. Originally planned as a part of the life-saving work, the instruction of juvenile mothers has developed into a campaign for universal motherhood—to train every young girl in the standardized way of taking care of a baby.

Little Mothers' Leagues.

The first of these leagues on the lower East Side, New York, began with courses of instruction in the public schools. Physicians and specialists in child-hygiene gave talks on baby-care to the girls. Then, those above twelve, who would volunteer, were organized into small working groups as a definite part of the baby-saving campaign. The "Little Mother Leagues" held weekly meetings and elected their own officers. Social entertainments followed, in addition to the hygienic instruction.

Each member received a silver badge and at the end of the course prizes were awarded to the girls who had shown most skill and progress in the care of their infant charges. The girls learned the right way to prepare food; how to provide for exercise, bathing, rest and amusement for the baby; with good habits of personal hygiene for themselves. The new influence was reflected in improved homes; better

health for the babies; a higher type of motherhood for the future.

It took one year to organize two hundred and thirty-nine of these Leagues in New York, with a membership of 17,500 girls. The movement soon spread to other cities.

A glimpse of the spirit animating these young crusaders appears at a pageant held in Public School No. 15, New York, where about one thousand of the girls, united in a quest as unselfish as that of earlier days, joined voices in this typical

SONG OF THE LITTLE MOTHERS' LEAGUE.

Upon our faces shines a light
Our toiling mothers have not seen;
America's high torch of white
We bring to pierce their troubled night,
We little Mothers of Fifteen,
Of dear Fifteen, of dear Fifteen.
And so our sisters and our brothers
Have each of them two loving mothers
To make them grow up sweet and clean.

And in our homes new glories start
And child and mother on us lean;
O Schools that taught us this sweet art,
We lay our hearts upon your heart,
We little Mothers of Fifteen,
O dear Fifteen, O dear Fifteen.
Your radiant light, your loving power
Shall teach our spirits till we flower
In womanhood, superb, serene.

To inspire such ideals in the future mothers of the community is certainly a long step forward in social education.

One of the many prize compositions written by the "little mothers" of the same public school, Number 15, gives another vivid glance at this baby-saving work. The author is Lillian Newman, eighth grade:

"The work of the Little Mothers' League has been a success through the four or five years we have established it. We are being taught each week how to care for and feed babies. We meet on Monday afternoon at three o'clock The president calls the meeting to order, and we begin our daily task. Our director is Mrs. Kaiser; she suggests that we should cut out clippings from newspapers about anybody who is trying to help save babies' lives. On March 27, 1912, we had a pageant describing what members of the Little Mothers' League do in trying to save babies. Every four weeks we have a meeting in the assembly, because Dr. Pick speaks to us about babies' care. He told us that a baby of two or three months should have more water than milk, and babies about six or seven months should have more milk than water. He also said that we should use a round bottle to feed the baby, because if we use a square bottle, it is bad to clean the bottle because of the corners. Dr. Pick told us that before giving the baby a nipple we should wash it well. One of the members cut out a clipping from a newspaper about Mr. Isadore Straus, who died. He left a large sum of money for the care of babies.

"Our L. M. L. has been one of the oldest and largest in the city of New York. Nathan Straus has helped many a baby in New York City, and we older girls are trying to help save more babies than what Nathan Straus did. So far our club has been a great success, and I hope it will be a greater success by the next year."

At one time an unwitting factor in child mortality, the little mothers have now become a most important asset in the work of reducing it. They also lead the way to a happier period when every mother will know how to take care of her own babies and have a keen, kindly interest in the welfare of every child in the community.

Taking up the torch of "good motherhood" at points not reached by the Little Mothers' League, the far-flung battle line of the Camp Fire Girls has carried the crusade to every part of the land. Under

TRAINING LITTLE MOTHERS

the leadership of Mrs. Luther H. Gulick, the saving of babies has become an essential feature of the Camp Fire work. No girl can obtain the second, or Fire-Maker's, degree until qualified on all these points:—

1. How to care for a baby's bed.
2. How to prepare and test its milk.
3. Relation of weight to disease and vitality; what the baby should gain in weight each week.
4. Why the baby cries.
5. How to make its clothes and playthings.
6. Active care of a baby an average of one hour a day for a month.

From doll games to active mothering seems a long step. Some have criticised again because young girls are thus hastened to maturity. The fact is that care of babies would fall to many of these girls in any case. It is the future vocation of most of them. Correct instruction in a principal duty of their life becomes, therefore, imperative. They should be none the less girls because learning how to be good mothers.

In the furnace blasts of summer, the little slum babies wilt like leaves. It is the chief death period. The fresh breeze of recreation piers, the shadowy playgrounds, and brief country trips afford the best remedy. At the water-side piers much remedial work has been centered. Here, trained nurses aid the little mothers with their charges; the baby is washed, properly fed and exercised; many are given a cool place to sleep through hot nights.

That these slum-babies might have the open air and exercise essential to life, the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania began some years ago to provide mothers with baby carriages to take them to the piers and playgrounds.

Such auxiliary work, within the home and without disturbing the relations of mother and child, has been the aim of the numerous church guilds and neighborhood settlements scattered through the congested quarters of most cities. The day-nurseries have taken up the task of providing a temporary shelter for young children while their mothers were at work. The better way, it is now agreed, is by State pensions to permit the indigent mothers to stay at home and take care of their own children. Home atmosphere is by far the best in which to keep babies alive and make them strong.

A pioneer charity of the country in open-air restoration work for sick children is the Sanitarium Association of Philadelphia. Before the Country-Week plan was known, it began, in 1877, to send well-equipped steamboats, loaded with sick children and their caretakers, down the Delaware River for six miles each summer day to a wooded park at Red Bank, New Jersey. Here, the children were put ashore and cared for throughout the day. While the babies rested under the trees, older "kiddies" played along the beach or splashed in the bathing pool. Through thirty-nine seasons of summer work this kindly plan has inspired new vigor in 3,554,259 children and their helpers.

The same life-saving work to save sick children from the death-atmosphere of the tenements has been carried out by the Floating Hospital of St. John's Guild, in New York Harbor. At every seaside or lake resort are now found sanitary homes or retreats for the little ones of the city during the heated period. "Give every baby a chance to live" is the watchword of those at work in this field, and no case is regarded

as so desperate that the battle is given up so long as there is life.

To bring home to all mothers the way to take care of the children, a new form of baby exhibit has been devised. Old-time "Baby Shows" awarded honors to the best-appearing children, without regard to health. In the numerous baby-saving shows which have sprung up throughout the land the dominant thought in recent years has been to secure a degree of physical health that could be measured by scientific tests. Score-cards have been devised; after systematic examination prizes were awarded on the basis of physical points or development. Not all babies can be standardized, but many of them can be promptly restored to normal functions when a specific weakness is pointed out and attended to.

Better Baby Campaigns.

More than one hundred thousand mothers have attended such scientific Baby Shows in the larger cities during a single week. Health waves have been set up of indefinite expansion through the community.

In contrast to the jealousies and futility of the old-fashioned beauty shows, practical hints were given upon every variety of infant needs. The photographs, samples of foods, contrasted home conditions, were silent, but eloquent, preachers of right living. Much educational force was latent in this sort of exhibit:—

At the center of one booth was a large chart containing two photographs, side by side—one of a crying baby and the other of a smiling baby. Beneath were the legends:—

THIS BABY IS CROSS. WHY?

He is fed or taken up whenever he cries.
He is fed too much.
He gets ice cream or candy.
He is dressed too warmly.
He needs a bath.
His bowels do not move right.
He is wet.
He is kept up too late.
He sleeps in a hot room with windows shut.
He is carried, rocked or bounced.
He is taken to the "movies."
He is given a comforter or soothing syrup.

THIS BABY IS HAPPY. WHY?

He is fed regularly.
He is fed properly.
He gets boiled water to drink.
He is dressed properly.
He is bathed every day.
His bowels move every day.
He is kept dry and clean.
He has plenty of sleep.
He has fresh air all the time.
He is let alone.
THERE ARE NO FLIES ON HIM.
He gets no patent medicine.

Other charts showed how the baby could be given a fair chance to kick its legs and move its arms about freely; how soon it should be permitted to stand or walk; how to guard against lameness; preserve its teeth; provide for its clothing and play-needs.

In the better-baby contests of the rural districts, especially at State Fairs, prizes have been given to induce farmers to bring their children up to the same high standards as their live stock. The examinations at these State Fairs were made by physicians, known as "baby-judges"; the scores were similar to those used for passing on prize horses, cattle or hogs. When the farmer learned that his baby scored lower than his live stock, his pride often rose in arms. Then, he placed his baby under the care of a specialist to learn how it might be brought up to the standard of his cattle. Grangers took up the subject of child-training and welfare.

Swift progress of this movement was shown when the National Western Live Stock Association

held a notable baby contest at Denver, Colo., in January, 1912; three hundred babies, representing both the city and ranch, were entered. The awards were made in the great open arena of Denver's famous stock yards. Buffalo Bill (Col. Cody) rode around the arena with the two champion babies—Ethel Chamberlain and Ralph Gallett—perched on the saddle in front of him. Beneath the ceremonies ran a mighty undercurrent of parental love, anxiety and pride. The child had, indeed, arrived.

At this contest one mother lamented in tears over her maternal neglect at the time of the baby's birth. Her baby had passed a successful examination, winning one perfect mark after another, until the judges reached its ears. These protruded so far as to destroy the proportion or symmetry of the child's entire frame, and cost the baby its chance as a prize winner. The mother learned that the defect might have been easily cured at the beginning by the use of a cap while the baby slept. She then made the decision: "When my next child is born I will have it thoroughly examined and take little defects in time."

Another typical case is cited in the hygienic reports:—

> Max Milstein, of Polk County, Iowa, whose one-year-old baby had been sadly outclassed by other contestants, took the family defeat sorely to heart. His wife, a college-bred woman, studied first the score card and then conferred with physicians and read books on child hygiene. During the ensuing year little Alice Milstein underwent a sane and safe system of hygienic living, from food to physical culture exercises. She was entered in the two-year-old class at the Iowa State Fair in 1912, and promptly walked off with the first prize, the unquestioned result of a year's proper care. Her case has been quoted by physicians at various gatherings of medical men as the practical result of a better-babies campaign.

In order to unite all the local agencies for child-help in one comprehensive plan, the Child Federation

The Child Federation.

was formed at Philadelphia in 1913. It succeeded in bringing into closer touch ninety-six separate institutions and societies devoted to child-welfare. This avoided duplications in the work; secured effective co-operation at many points and created a central bureau where it was possible to indicate promptly the best channel of help for each individual child-need.

Among its early plans the Federation broadened the scope of the better-baby campaign, conducting the first Baby Improvement Contest held in the country. The competing babies were given tests extending over four weeks, instead of the usual brief space of a few days; prizes were awarded for progress in physical development throughout the period, for general care of the baby and improvement in home surroundings. This marked an advance over the earlier plan of grading babies according to points on an ideal or theoretic standard. It has modified the conduct of baby contests since in many parts of the country.

On the City Hall plaza the Federation set up a typical Baby Saving Show, afterward taken to all quarters of the city; it helped to make the Little Mothers' League plan a part of the public school curriculum; during the second year (1914) its main efforts were devoted to establishing the first Health Center in the city. Placed in a congested foreign district, instruction was given on health lines to the entire neighborhood. The specialists and trained nurses for five months made an intensive study of the one city block; of the babies under their care only one died.

The first step was to reach every individual in the section chosen—man, woman or child—teaching each one its share in the prevention of sickness or death; homes were improved; every measure of health protection known to science was extended in needy cases.

Many babies were brought to the Health Center building for examination and treatment; the prospective mothers were also carefully advised. By equipping one such Health Center for every twenty-five blocks it is planned to extend the permanent health campaign to the entire city.

A picturesque social event, crowning the first year of this Child Federation work, was a great, public Christmas tree, lighted up in Independence Square December 24. 1913. It stood sixty-three feet high, surmounted by a star six feet in height and had a spread of branches of over fifty feet. Forty-three hundred electric bulbs of different colors lighted the tree. Responsive candles were lit in the windows of the famous old State House adjacent and the effect was singularly beautiful, emblematic of the new child era, and of the community-interest in the happiness of all its children.

The Christmas tree was viewed, during one week, by 350,000 persons; nightly band concerts and singing of Christmas carols by a chorus of six hundred voices added interest. It is an instance of keen community interest that the entire expense of this tree and its attendant ceremonies was met by a single member of the Child Federation.

The Foundling Baby.

The most pietous of child figures is the infant abandoned by its own mother at birth. So convinced are these waifs that they are not wanted in this world that most of them hasten to leave it at once. The death-rate at most foundling asylums exceeds fifty per cent., and this takes no account of the waifs that die before reaching any such refuge. Yet much of this life-waste appears to be needless. During 1910, 42 per cent. of the total deaths of babies under one year of age in the Borough of Manhattan took place in institution (inclusive of both foundling asylums and general hospitals). In

one foundling institution, out of a total of 2440 births and new admissions under one year of age in 1910, there occurred in the same year 1275 deaths of babies under one year of age, or 52 per cent. In 1911, in this same institution, there were 2211 births and admissions under one year of age, with a total of 1102 deaths, or 49 per cent., for the same age and period. While it is recognized that many of the babies received at these institutions are in poor physical condition, and often even moribund, yet investigations have shown that it is possible to greatly reduce the mortality among this class of babies if they can be placed out to board in properly inspected and supervised private homes.

The prompt substitution of a new, in place of the lost, mother is apparently the only way to save the abandoned child. Conclusive tests of this substitution plan have been made by the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania from year to year. In 1912 it received 156 foundlings; placing them at once with good wet nurses, it had a mortality for the year of only 3 infants—less than 2 per cent.

This obviously means that to give the weak foundling a chance, it should be placed with a foster mother until it has passed the danger point and started to grow. After the first few weeks it often turns out to be the hardiest type of infant.

Conservation of the race means that **every** child should be given a fair chance. The record of foundlings placed in good foster homes proves that these waifs make good citizens under proper guidance. To save them is well worth the community's while.

But the moral problem goes deeper and must include the recreant parents. Most stress should be laid upon the social agencies that are at work to educate mothers, and especially the young, in the sanctitude of the maternal function. These agencies are preparing the way for a better childhood and stronger

race. Much of the error in this vital matter grows out of **ignorant** impulse. To make clear the unchanging law of cause and effect must benefit both the future parent and child.

It was once thought so shameful to bear illegitimate children that even foundling homes provided means to help the mother to conceal her identity. The exact opposite is now the social teaching. Nothing seems more essential to restore the unmarried mother to a sense of self-respect than the care of her own child. She is now urged to acknowledge and take care of it by all interested in her true welfare, as well as that of the child. Where conditions make it possible or safe to keep mother and child together social agencies no longer permit them to be separated.

There are many grounds for the belief that present remedial efforts in this country will go far to reduce the infant death-rate. Both moral and economic causes of this plague must be removed. The training of the individual must be sufficient to overcome parental carelessness and sex immorality.

SOCIETY MUST DO ITS PART TO ENSURE THE TYPE OF HOME WHERE EACH CHILD MAY REST SAFELY IN ITS MOTHER'S ARMS.

AROUND THE MAY POLE—STARR GARDEN

Chapter II.

THE CHILD AT PLAY.

The child finds himself in play. He begins to romp when only a month or two old. His baby-cooes and gurgles are outward signs of effervescing joy. Though he enters the world a-crying, he smiles at the first gleam of sunlight or kindly faces. The star-eyed wonder of the early months melts into radiant laughing, as he discovers he was not sent here to mope or merely absorb nourishment, but can move about, have a good time and make others smile as well.

This deep-rooted instinct of the child for joyous action is set forth by Keble, in his "Lyra Innocentium," with quaint directness—

> The life that in them deeply dwells
> Of genial spring-tide tells;
> Of their ownselves they see and know
> To what glad tune the summer brooks shall flow.

Is it less cruel to take away fresh air and sunshine from the child than to deprive him of opportunity for joyous self-expression in play? With the right to live, the child has also the right to become what God intended him to be.

Nature sugar-coats the pills with which she entices the child to exercise and action. The flowers far-afield; the easy-sloping hill up which one can climb and then roll down again; the lure of the winding brook; the tree-shaded pond, where little fish dart among the lily-pads; the waves tumbling over the

broad, sandy beach; the gleam of starlight upon the smooth ice-surface of the river—these speak the manifold sign language no clear-eyed child ever misses.

And the wise home-mother knows something is wrong as soon as the child loses interest in play. If he continues apathetic, she gives him some old-fashioned remedy; then, thinks of the doctor. She will not be reassured until the child goes back to his normal round of play.

If, as some think, play is the best of medicine—tonic for both blood and tissue—it gives keen inspiration as well to mental and social efforts of every sort. It is of highest value as a school asset; Froebel and many others proved this. In the joyous rythm of music, in the arts and in civic achievement can be discerned at all times that quality of "sweetness and light Arnold loved to analyze and Ruskin to write volumes about. It is in Greek drama no less than in the modern pageant; in the romance of battle and in the symmetry of a colossal bridge.

The dominant fact in play is the social impulse; only the rare child will play long alone. Folk-games of the primitive races show the same spirit of emulation and companionship that lends zest to child-sports. The anti-social or vicious child is found almost invariably to be one who has been denied opportunities for wholesome play in the early, habit-forming years. Happy children do not, as a rule, go wrong; the surest way to safeguard the child against immoral tendency is to surround him with health-building amusements.

This social instinct, underlying boy-play, is the origin of the inevitable "gang." The gang-spirit, in fact, is only one of the ways in which social instinct seeks expression. The loyalty gang-members often display in mischievous adventure would make heroes under better guidance. The spirit of the playground

is that of honor and courtesy. The same boys respond to this impulse who otherwise make good wharf-rats. The child of the alley, denied rational play, makes the vicious gun-man at sixteen.

To delight in childhood's merriment has always been the mark of a large, fine nature. Genial "Tom" Johnson, leader of its play-life and Mayor of Cleveland, suggested this as the epitaph he desired:—

I hope the people, when I die, will build a playground over my body. I would rather have the children romping on my grave than a hundred monuments.

Significance of Playgrounds.

Americans, as a rule, were too busy to give thought or leisure to play until about a decade ago. To clear up the fields, dig canals or build railroads took the best genius of the race. Literature, and other fine arts, bore a distinct mark of importation. There were few folk-games or customs. Even the children were wont to take their play somewhat seriously.

In the great Declaration, Jefferson placed the "pursuit of happiness" on the same plane with the right to "life and liberty." It is only within a generation that we, as a people, have begun to realize the importance of true recreation.

Sweeping across the land like a beneficent conflagration, as one official report puts it, the movement for ample playgrounds has created a new social atmosphere. Foreign visitors no longer speak of us as a gloomy race.

Children of the cities, "with no place to play," inspired the first steps in this larger play-movement. Boston may lay claim to an initial act looking toward civic control of amusements, when she imported, in 1885, the idea from Berlin of scattering sand-piles

City Progress.

for her children's play among the smaller parks. About a decade later, as the country at large was waking up, she developed her river parks for gymnasia and swimming; also surrounding her school buildings with new play spaces. Her annual budget for upkeep of playgrounds and civic amusements now (1915) exceeds $1,000,000. In round numbers one-tenth of Boston's entire area has been devoted to parks and play spaces for the children.

Other cities have shown equal liberality. New York spent nearly a score of millions, transforming large block of East Side tenements into playgrounds; the immediate result was to take half the children out of the Juvenile Courts, as the slums were converted to play centers. Great recreation piers, extending into the rivers, became oases for sick babies, while larger grounds, with gymnasia and play-equipment, were added to many of the schools.

Philadelphia, a pioneer in the play-movement, began with four school gardens, conducted by the Board of Education, so long ago as 1895. The number was increased each year until, in 1912, there were ninety-one gardens well distributed through the city. Starr Garden Park, a most interesting slum play center, was first developed by the Civic Club in 1904; then, transferred a few years later to city control. After the Playground Association, a volunteer group, had raised funds by a successful "Tag Day," in 1908, large, supervised playgrounds followed to the number of fourteen. The city, in 1912, took over their control; a municipal Board of Recreation, organized under a special law, provided playground amusements, during one year, for 1,371,315 child-participants, at a cost for supervision of $57,149, or only 4.16 cents per child per day.

Chicago put into this crusade its own Western verve; colossal playgrounds arose swiftly in the stock-yard and other congested districts; in less than a decade (1904-1913) twelve million dollars were spent by the city for recreation. At its beginning the work centered upon the small children; they were first assigned spaces on the playgrounds for wading-pools, teeter-boards, swings and sand-bins, with comfortable seats where the mothers or caretakers might sit and watch them play. Then, older boys were provided with baseball diamonds, hand-ball courts, running-track apparatus, while the girls had a space apart for tennis and other contests. Playgrounds became civic centers, with great field houses and assembly halls, swimming pools, libraries and home-like restaurants for both children and adults.

In all the Western cities, the large admixture of foreign peoples, with their variant folk-games and customs, gave to the community play a new light-heartedness and freedom, perhaps, unique. The elders, as they watched their children, of many races, play together, had a semi-conscious vision of the day when universal good-will shall have produced the highest type of man.

Cleveland is a good example of the swift transformation in community life wrought by the play-spirit. The importance of good leadership in play was also apparent.

Mayor "Tom" Johnson began by ordering "Keep off the grass" signs removed from all the parks. Forty baseball diamonds were opened, and local leagues started in every ward. As spectators, by the thousand, flocked to the amateur games, the nearby saloons lost popularity.

With a score of new playgrounds, and a hundred odd tennis courts scattered upon smaller tracts, spontaneously, groups of children were organized through the city for systematized play. Out-of-door fetes and carnivals quickened popular interest. A significant

step was taken in the opening of municipal dance halls, each with a large roof garden. These clarified the social atmosphere wherever instituted; vice conditions were at once improved. The city dance halls proved the value of community play as a substitute for the "commercialized" amusements that had led many young people to vicious habits.

It was noted in most instances of civic recreation that both child and adult gained a new love for "the city," as it displayed direct and tangible interest in their well-being. It seemed, indeed, worth while to be a member of a community that promoted so much happiness and contentment. And everywhere the chief motive for the cultivation of the play-spirit was the welfare of the children.

In five years (from 1907 to 1912), according to figures compiled by the Playground and Recreation Association of America, the number of American cities with officially supervised play centers, increased from 90 to 533, or just about **five hundred per cent.** in the half decade. This swift development took in almost every first and second-class city in the country. A new profession was created in the same period. At its beginning there were no professional play experts. In 1912 the play census showed 5320 trained play leaders, in charge of, or supervising, 2094 municipal playgrounds. The total expenditure in the municipal development, irrespective of rural play, was estimated at $100,000,000.

Near the heart of the congested, foreign quarter of Old Philadelphia, the Starr Garden Play Center, in a few years' use transformed the entire neighborhood. It evidenced the value of playgrounds in assimilating diverse races. The number of children playing at Starr Garden each year averaged 300,000. Of this number only about **two per cent.** was of native American parentage. The other ninety-eight per cent. were of Russian, Hebrew, Italian or African descent.

In the genial playground spirit even black and white tots have competed with happy accord. They splash together in the wading pools or take part in evening games without trace of jealousy. Even more significant—the parents, in the common love for their children, waive racial prejudice and antipathies. This mutual good-will has brought about a fine neighborhood spirit. Before they knew each others' language, mothers have found themselves in touch through the common child-life. In adopting the old-time English gayeties of May Day, with the ribbon pole-dance and crowning of the May Queen, a new social vista has come to these foreign visitants, both child and adult. They have felt the spirit of the new land as nothing but joy could have taught it.

Native-stock American boys and girls have community play-nights. This came out strikingly at the opening of Sherwood Recreation Park in one of the best residential quarters of West Philadelphia. "Sherwood," regarded at that time (1912) as a model playground of the country, was equipped with every late device of in and out-door recreation. The gymnasium was equipped for both sexes. On the second floor was an auditorium, with a fine stage for dramatics as well as lectures, with moving pictures. There were shower baths, numerous club and classrooms. Chief interest centered in the great open-air swimming pool. Here was ample room for 3000 to bathe on a single summer day. The concrete pool (40 x 90 feet), with constant supply of running water, was emptied and refilled each 7½ hours. Of nearly a thousand boys and girls taught to swim in one season, 176 became experts. Each bather passed through a shower bath before entering the pool, and the rule was to admit new groups every forty minutes.

Swimming tournaments developed into fetes and the most important summer asset of the neighborhood; during the winter the indoor recreation aroused

fully as much interest. The success of "Sherwood" led to a general demand for playgrounds and organized recreation in every well-to-do, as well as in the crowded sections of the Quaker city. These instances of playground growth indicate the trend of the whole movement.

In the two great play months of the year—July and August—the play census estimates that each weekday on an average in the cities, one million (1,000,000) children actively participate in the playgrounds sports who would have otherwise small opportunity to make their school vacation tell for health and character-building. This represents hardly a tithe of the influence of the supervised playgrounds.

Among smaller cities of the land there are few that have gained more from the play movement in civic unity and progress than East Orange, New Jersey. Beginning its playground activities in 1907, they were soon placed all over town, on a parity with its admirable schools. As one official observer remarked, the city would as soon surrender the schools now as the play centers. Each year of community play has made more emphatic the truth that "the children are the real wealth of the city."

The play-life centers at the East Orange Oval, near an important railway station, and the heart of the town. About one thousand children—a good part of its juvenile life—gather each weekday from May to October at the Oval. With expert guidance, they enjoy every form of organized sports—athletic team contests, foot and hand-ball, tennis, folk dances, story-telling fetes, baths with wading pool, sand piles, teeter boards and slides for the little tots. It is noted at this typical playground that even in the animated team bouts there is rarely any bickering among the children, unless their elders interfere.

The annual play festival, on Labor Day, draws almost the entire city to the Oval; festival programs

of increasing interest have been developed from year to year. The athletic prize contests are introductory; there follow folk games, with varied pageantry, dramatics, a band concert, choral singing. The day becomes a general town-get-together, the crowning event of the community year. There existed already a strong civic conscience, but now has come a deeper sense of the need for unity of action in all of the things that count.

Joy and the imagination are so closely linked that it seems not unfitting to define play as the art of arts. Most significant is the fact that as the play campaign developed through the country, the chief place of interest has been given to imaginative story-telling. In the play census of 1912, of the 533 cities reporting, **one hundred and forty-three** gave story-telling as the form of activity favored by most children; of the other favorite amusements, **one hundred and thirty-two** cities named folk dancing as most popular, while **one hundred and twenty-two** gave choral and instrumental music the third place. Whether industrial class-work should be given prominence at the play centers may be open to query, but there can be no doubt upon the value of those things which lend color to the fine art of living.

PLAY-LEADERS.

Upon the social horizon has appeared a new and significant personality—the Play-Leader. To his—or, as often, her—hands has been committed the essential moulding of the nation-wide crusade for rational, character-building amusements.

The primary requisites for success in this new profession are set forth in this statement to aspirants:

The candidate must have a sound mind in a sound body; a general knowledge of hygiene, gymnastics and games; the

quality of leadership; an intelligent and enthusiastic appreciation of the opportunity for moulding character and of encouraging healthful physical habits; and a compelling desire for personal service.

This analysis makes evident that the play-leader should possess the qualities of a Greek athlete, combined with those of the Christian missionary. He must see in the new recreation a high social purpose before he can master its technique or realize the creative spirit of the work.

To direct a playground or recreation center requires such large measure of excutive skill that the success at once of many in this field is a remarkable tribute to American versatility. Courage, alert judgment and tact can alone solve the difficult situations that arise constantly. The boys must have unflinching confidence in their leader. He must know how to handle the lad that fights, cheats, gambles or lies.

It is a real man's task. To organize the out-door games or the evening diversions requires even more than tact—the keenest psychology—to put together the odd mixtures of race, creed and color. The true play-leader keeps in touch with the entire neighborhood and makes the playground its best social expression.

For folk games of young children, dancing or story-telling the feminine play-leader has her own distinctive place. The best lead the least. Keeping much in the background, the leader gives each child scope to follow its own free fancy. Her quiet, unobtrusive discipline goes little beyond seeing that each one has equal chance to use the play equipment or take part in favorite games. When a group gathers around for a "good story," she soon gets such keen attention that the children become like malleable gold for social moulding.

The unbridled play-spirit, without guidance, does not work out. Without good leaders, at the opening

of the playgrounds, they often become a nuisance to the neighborhood. Older boys crowd the young children off the grounds, as the "gang" and bully promptly come in evidence. Play is an art that must be taught, though at best unobtrusively.

Most cities have discovered that to make progress in systematized play they must secure an efficient Recreation Secretary. He can work out a "comprehensive plan," adapting it to needs of various sections. Supervising the play-leaders, and fitting both men and women to specific tasks, he becomes a final authority on social development. The time is not distant when the director of recreation will be as important a part of the city machinery as the director of police or public health.

Collegiate training institutes have begun to specialize upon courses in play-leadership and the growth of this profession is only limited by the play needs of the nation.

To help the child permanently, the play center should improve his environment. It accomplishes most in this direction, by bringing the entire community into sympathetic touch. A sequel is occasionally seen in such neighborhood movements as a street-cleaning campaign led by the children and their parents.

The recreation movement in crowded sections of some cities has converted little-used side streets into recognized play-spaces and even thrown open abandoned cemeteries where, above the erstwhile graves, the tenement children can romp during the day, and tired mothers through hot summer nights can secure a little fresh air for their babies.

Under wise leadership, many town councils and city school boards have set apart annual "Play Days," either in the spring or fall, and on these festal occasions not only does the child reign, but the competitive games and pageantry mark high-water levels for the community life and social progress.

The play-leader is, in sooth, a prophet of the time when a man's worth will be tested, not by his possessions, but by the measure of his contribution to the welfare and happiness of those about him.

Boy Scout Activities.

The value of play-leadership is emphasized in the rapid growth of the Boy Scout movement. Suggested to Col. Baden-Powell, at the time of the Boer War, by the skill of scouting lads at the front, the project had a military flavor as first worked out in England. America has seen the movement take a broader range. The playground proved the natural center of many of the Boy Scout manoeuvres, while the scoutmaster has followed the main lines of educational play.

The two guiding principles, from the time the scout begins as a Tenderfoot, are development of self-reliance and making one's self useful to others. The spirit of honor and of happy, good-will or courtesy in all work, turn what otherwise might seem drudgery into the finest of sport. Whether qualifying for his merit badges in first aid, in handicraft, firemanship, civics, photography, health rules, signaling or taxidermy, the boy is always stimulated by the companionship of the troop-members and the skilled guidance of the scoutmaster.

Here, the gang instinct has found an outlet. Many of the troops and scout patrols in the city have been organized among the playground boys who have graduated out of corner crap-games into systematized play, and now takes a long step further away from the Juvenile Court.

Week-end hikes into the open country utilize to the full the boys' adolescent love of adventure. Woodcraft, treasure hunts, path-finding, stalking, with all the delights of wild animal lore, open new realms to the boy mind; but mainly they are getting to know themselves and welding the sinews of manhood.

A STOCK YARD PLAY-GROUND—CHICAGO

Interest in the civic value of the scout idea has progressed so far that wealthy men are setting apart corners of their large estates, with log cabins specially built for the scout's use and even turning over private yachts that the boys may learn the rudiments of seamanship in the bracing air of the open sea. These are all a legitimate outgrowth of the great national movement to train up good citizens through the systematic and rational play activities.

Instead of devoting their latent energy to lawbreaking adventure, the Boy Scouts of the city now do better than keep out of the Courts—they take keen pleasure in aiding the police at many points to maintain good order. They point out dangerous evasions of the fire laws; report violation of garbage and other regulations; are of prompt aid in hurried crowds and accidents; stop unnecessary noises, especially near the hospitals; do much to forward the safety-first exhibits, clean-up weeks and the safe and sane Fourth of July.

Those observers who have hitherto missed the close relation between play and good citizenship do not need spectacles as they watch the Boy Scout evolution.

SOCIAL PAGEANTS.

In the evolution of the play movement the pageant has become its highest expression. Through the play of the children, this social drama gains both prophetic and constructive power. Community life did not become self-conscious in this country until it saw, in the pageant, what it had been and was to be. Problems hard to solve became simpler, even joyous, in the symbolic adjustment.

Both town and city pageants have this element of optimism in common. The prominence of the child gives the hope; what this vision of childhood, in relation to social drama means, may be seen in two impressive examples.

Thirty thousand citizens of the great city of Pittsburgh, moved by a deep community thrill, gathered at Schenley Park. They came to watch fifteen thousand playground children picture the life of the city in a dramatic version of Browning's "Pied Piper of Hamelin." Upon a spacious, diamond-marked field, was the faithful semblance of a German village. In the centre stood four booths, flaunting their gay red roofs beneath the clear, aquiline sky. One was piled high with apples; another with vegetables; from the walls of another hung strings of sausages, and in the fourth cheeses were temptingly displayed. As the children marched on the scene, led by several bands, the village seemed suddenly to awake. Market people appeared calling to one another and passing the time of day. One and another early buyer appeared; then, groups, until the whole field was a riot of color.

Pittsburgh's Great Spectacle.

Amid these happy groups suddenly rush in immense rats, jumping about and making everyone uncomfortable. A group of little children come up to dance on the green, but are soon driven back by the rats to find refuge in their mothers' skirts; the rats then grow bolder and take complete possession of the green.

The desperate villagers march off in a tumultous body to consult the Mayor and Town Council, seated under a canopy across the field. The leader of the mob, with vehement gestures, as the others shout, lays down a brief ultimatum; the people then march back, the rats playing about them as they go.

While the Council deliberates, there comes on the scene a strangely-garbed figure. He advances leisurely toward the perplexed town-fathers and salutes them, waving the pipe he carries. He then narrates a tale of the wondrous magic by which he "freed

the Cham and eased in Asia the Misam from a monstrous brood of vampire rats:—

"And chiefly do I use my charm
On things that do the people harm."

After much shaking of heads and drawing down of brows, the Council agrees to pay one thousand guilders, provided the Piper will make good his claim.

Then, the Pied figure steps into the main street and, "smiling a little smile," blows three shrill notes on his pipes. A light, muttering sound grows soon into loud grumbling; next, into mighty rumbling, as of an army. Never before was seen such an outpouring of rats. From all the houses, from the market-green and unexpected holes they come, with many dancing capers.

As the Piper starts away the rats form a variegated column and rapidly advance across the brow of the hill. The villagers reassemble with laughter and much embracing of one another. They congratulate the council, but seem to forget the one who brought their good fortune. In jubilation they shout: "Now the rats are gone, we will clang the bell."

Its clanging dies away, as the calm, pensive figure of the Piper approaches to claim his promised reward. But gratitude is wanting. The people stand silent while the Mayor refuses the just demand, and go off hooting when the Piper turns to them with his appeal. The Piper is left alone, a melancholy figure, for a brief moment.

Suddenly he lifts his head; a new inspiration seizes him. As he walks along, in a sort of dream, he pipes softly, sweetly. Comes a little, lame boy, running toward him, with hands outstretched. Then, another little child, pulling a tinier one after her. In groups of two, three or more, the children gather round the Piper.

As the joy of his music sets them dancing, the whole surging mass of children follow the Piper when he moves away toward the distant hills. The long procession, in joyous, dancing abandon, finally passes from sight. One little boy, the lame one, who could not dance, remains, to gaze tearfully after his companions, departing for the enchanted land; then, turns wearily homeward to tell the strange tale.

He meets one or two villagers, who listen in wonder. The streets soon throng with anxious parents, their faces marked with the terror that cannot be named. Where are the children? They look everywhere—right and left. It is true—the children are gone.

The parents turn homeward, with slow, sad steps, showing a tenderness to the little, lame boy no child in Hamelin had ever known. What use the gay, flaunting booths, with their rich wares; the gleaming blue sky, or the fresh greensward with no dancing feet? Its children missing, the town has become a mere desert place.

The **Second Act** revealed the Piper in the midst of the enchanted mountain with the dancing children about him. Some of the little ones take the parts of fairies, gorgeous insects, birds and wood sprites. At the Piper's gay notes flowers spring up, nodding their heads. Butterflies, with gaudy, outstretched wings, come flitting among the animated roses and violets; then, huge grasshoppers (boys in disguise) jump in from every direction.

At each successive call of the Piper dragon flies buzz in and about; great troops of swallows circle swiftly around the other groups, and veiled spring-fairies, in vivid green, weave majestic rings, which they throw over both flowers and children. All join with ecstasy in a fairy dance that, for Oriental coloring and beauty, passes description.

In the midst of the festivities the wearied parents, finding a way into the enchanted mountain,

appear on the verge of the scene. They would rush forward to the children, but, no—the spell of the music holds them back. Finally, they supplicate and appease the Piper. With shouts of rejoicing they lead him back to the village, the Mayor at the head of the long procession of parents and children; even the wild spirits of the mountain join in the mighty recessional. As the multitude of spectators betook themselves home, they realized, as never before, that civic apathy brought suffering, and that the love of gold kept from a people true appreciation of their priceless treasure—the child life of the city.

Pageant of Thetford.

With a quieter margin, yet with much beauty and force, the historical pageant of Thetford, Vermont, commemorated its one hundred and fiftieth anniversary, in August, 1911. Situated on the slope of the Green Mountains, with the Connecticut River as its eastern boundary, this little township has a farming population of 1182 scattered over an expanse of 42 square miles. Its history follows the course of most New England rural communities; mainly prosperity came in the middle period of the last century, before the trend Westward and large use of machinery on more productive soil crippled its farm resources.

Thetford's pageant was, therefore, an agricultural drama, picturing its quiet history and prophesying its future, as fancy painted the solution of present-day problems. In twelve dramatic episodes the story was unfolded.

The pageant was staged upon the broad, village common, with background of mingled stream, mountain and forest. Came first, as a prelude, the little children, attired in festive white and green and gave the Dance of the Nature Spirits, portraying the free life of wood and hillside.

Then follow Indian episodes, while the red men confer in solemn council with the early settlers; pictures of colonial days, husking bees, maple sugar parties, threshing and winnowing.

Into the simple, joyous life of the country folk comes suddenly a Spirit of War. Clad in flaming red, she carries a bared sword. Insolent and mocking, she scatters the rural groups and rages about the scene alone. Then follow swift glimpses of the assembling of the Green Mountain boys, who march away to the field of Bennington and return with trophies of victory; after an interlude a great roll of drums and there march up the serried ranks of Civil War veterans, with their tattered battleflags, as they come back from Gettysburg.

In a graphic episode ensues the central thought of the pageant, the perplexing **Rural Problem.** Under stress of conditions that follow the Civil War there is a drain of small farmers from the countryside to the mill-towns. Homes are broken up—with sad, parting scenes. Ambitious youths, unable to turn their fathers from the old ways, drift to the West and South, leaving the town, for the moment, bereft of its vitality and hope.

As the broken families separate, Thetford, personifying the town, comes upon the common from the elm-gate, at one end. Her rustic garb, once blue and green, is now so faded as to be almost brown. She stretches out her arms in compassion toward the departing families; then, in distress for them, appeals in all directions for help. But hope fails and she sinks down, in utter dejection, upon the earth.

Instantly, the Spirit of Pageantry appears, with resplendent garb, breathing an air of dignity and radiant hope. Her mission is to put joy into all work. She, too, stands a moment at the elm-gate; then, looks at Thetford lying upon the ground, goes to her and raises her up with the sympathy of woman for

woman. The bright Spirit then points to the South, where is seen a vision of America, upon a white horse, with the starry flag aloft and a gleaming shield on one arm.

While Thetford gazes in wonder, America waves the flag as a sign of recognition. Thetford turns back to speak to the Spirit of Pageantry; she has vanished. She turns to look again on the vision of America; that, too, has gone. Rapt for a short time in amazement, Thetford suddenly stoops to the ground, and draws out of the soil a sword, the Sword of Power.

She holds it forth straight above her head, self-reliant, strong, with a radiant joy in her face upturned to the sky, as the orchestra and chorus join in a mighty anthem of hope and triumph in the future.

The scenes that follow picture the new outlook of the town with a broader education and life; difficulties are overcome in the power of a socially united community.

The New Agriculture is shown in a town fair—a real fair—with an explanatory dialogue, spoken throughout by two characters—one, the Master of the Grange, and the other a Western farmer, who has come back to Vermont for the Old Home Week.

Among the exhibits of the fair are the fine Jersey and Holstein cattle; as the Morgan horses are brought in and made to pace about, the Master of the Grange points out their merits to the visitor. Then, with a brief introduction—**"There's our best crop, our boys and girls"**—in come the Camp Fire Girls and the Boy Scouts, keenly interested, as their elders, and with their own part to take in the fair.

The Westerner remarks that they have Boy Scouts and Camp Fire Girls everywhere, to which the Grange Master retorts:—

"Yes; but with us it is town policy. It is a development of our resources equalled by nothing else.

Not only does it make them men and women from head to foot, but it keeps them young."

So, under the free, out-door conditions that develop initiative, the girls build a fire, cook food, and dance some of the wholesome folk dances that new Americans have brought from other lands; the boys rescue and resuscitate a lad found drowning in the river, while the girls warm a blanket for him and feed him; the boys then run a dashing hurdle race, with other drills and competitions. After follows a basket picnic, which all share together. As they sing the Thetford song—**"Come, good neighbors, all! Let us stand with purpose one, in bright or stormy weather,"** the people of all the episodes of the pageant pour in from the entrances on either side of the grandstand, and form a semi-circle across the nearer grounds.

At this moment, from the pine woods, appears Thetford, coming down to the elm-gate, resplendent in rich garb of blue and green. On one arm she carries the Pageant Shield—a golden sun rising above the mountains, with river and intervale below; in her right hand she carries the Sword of Power. Standing at the elm-gate she raises the sword above her head.

Responding to this signal dance out troops of the child-like Nature Spirits, in gleaming white, from all directions. Then, Thetford points through the elm-gate to the South, where Vermont advances, riding upon a Morgan horse, clad in green, bearing aloft her State shield and flag. As the people sing:—

Hail, Vermont, Green Mountain State!
Bravely hast thou won!
Ride, superb! Despite all fate,
Ever leading on!"

Vermont rides down through the elm-gate and up to the crest of a little hill, where she raises her flag as a signal.

Far down the long vista is seen America, on a white horse, clad in the traditional garb of Liberty, carrying the shield of the United States and the American flag flying in the wind. She comes on at full gallop, escorted by the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut and New York. Instantly, as America sweeps down the hill and stops before the assembled pageant, raising her flag, the orchestra and chorus burst forth in The Star Spangled Banner. When they cease, America rides to the top of the little hill, where Vermont and the sister States cluster about her.

There Thetford also takes her stand at the bridle-reign of America, the whole pageant from the first settler to the broken family of the Rural Problem and to the Boy Scouts and Camp Fire Girls of today pass in review and march off, one massive column, into the distance.

Though the pageant passes on, the impression left upon a community, either rural or urban, is deep and permanently constructive. This creative influence springs from the fact that all social progress depends upon the unity of a common, dominant hope. Only as the people act in unison can the larger community issues be met. The young participants in the social drama revel in the color and animation of the passing scene, but maturer minds glimpse the symbolic meanings with their prophetic import.

The child at play is a prototype of the time when all labor shall be joyous, wrought in the glad spirit of Youth and Universal Good Will.

A GYMNASIUM CLASS

Chapter III.

THE CHILD AT SCHOOL.

THIS delectable picture of school life in his day is given by Agricola, a humanist of the fifteenth century:—

> **A school is like a prison, in which there are blows, tears and groans without end. If there is anything with a contradictory name it is the school. The Greeks named it SCHOLA—that is, leisure; the Latins, LUDUS LITERARIUS—literary play; but there is nothing further from leisure than the school, nothing harder or more opposed to play. More correctly did it derive from Aristotle the name PHRONTIZERION—that is, place of care.**

Not a dull student, in fact, an unusually ambitious one, Martin Luther bears the added testimony that he was often and cruelly flogged at school for not accomplishing work much beyond his powers.

Such rigid discipline governed the schools, or most of them, well into the nineteenth century. Locke had questioned it and Rousseau ridiculed the system in his "Emile"; but it remained for Pestalozzi, the Swiss pioneer of the new education, "to swing the European school-wagon out of the rut and turn it in the opposite direction." His chief student, Froebel, moulding into practical form the new idea of child-training, organized the first kindergarten, a school where the young mind is permitted to expand and grow by natural laws, as the plant grows in the free air and sunlight.

Froebel aimed to arouse the interest of the child, not to enforce a prescribed code of instruction, thus leading it through self-activity and self-reliance to the knowledge that is power, because always linked with action. He made much of play and games, following nature, who puts joy into all her creations. In the endeavor to excite the child's native power and capacity, he took the first long step toward vocational guidance.

A woman pioneer, of the present day, takes another step forward—beyond Froebel. In her "Casa dei Bambini" (House of the Babies), at Rome, Dr. Maria Montessori has wrought out a well-matured plan for the self-development, or natural unfolding, of the child-mind. She begins with her pupils, as did Froebel, at the age of three; then, by easy stages, she guides them to self-expression. In her classrooms the children move about freely, talk to one another, choose their own occupations and work at them as long as they like.

Montessori.

To the visitor at the Montessori school the children all seem engaged in interesting play. Some lie on the floor, arranging colored blocks; others, blindfolded, are separating with the fingers alone different textures of silk and woolens; a few are drawing at the blackboard, and there is a larger group exercising on the lawn.

If a child, busy at some self-appointed task, does not want to join the general marching or singing exercise, he doesn't do it. He keeps right on composing a sentence with the movable alphabet or building his block stairway, though he may take up the refrain of the song as he works. When his special task is finished, he falls into the marching column, if then so inclined, or follows his free fancy in some other direction.

Trained in this atmosphere of liberty, the child's initiative is constantly appealed to, his interest kept alert. The usual result of the method is to stimulate the child's spontaneous attention, always the best spur to his mental growth. There is no forcing, nor apparent waste of an atom of the child's native energy. In the kindergarten a certain liberty of choice is allowed, but the teacher still directs the program for all the children. In the Montessori class each child is doing what he likes best and it often happens that no two children are doing the same thing.

Discipline is attained through the general spirit of good will. If a child proves stubborn or disagreeable, he soon finds himself out of harmony with the contented workers about him. Except in rare instances he yields to the general sense of well-being, as otherwise he cannot stay in the charmed circle or enjoy himself with the others. He thus wins self-control and discovers at the same time that his happiness depends upon his pleasing his comrades. The anti-social child has no place in the Montessori program.

For the teacher the main task is to see that each child is provided with materials and opportunity to do things easily within its powers. She suggests little except in answer to questions; the children are trained to rely always upon themselves. Failure is not commented on, being taken merely as a sign that the child has tried to do something it is not yet ready for.

A fine spirit of comraderie grows out of this freedom in tasks. The children learn to take pride in each other's success; one encourages another to surmount the apparent obstacle. To the teacher's smile, at each well-earned success, is added the zest of constant emulation.

Among the earliest tasks given the tiny novice may be a frame containing buttons and buttonholes. The little fingers fit button into buttonhole over and over again. There is no chance to get the wrong button into the top buttonhole, there is no hurry. So, when, by easy stages, the child gets to the point of buttoning little sister's frock, the process is thoroughly familiar. All the eye has to do is to see that the top button gets into the top buttonhole.

So, the child learns **accuracy** from its third year on. Other simple tasks—tying, lacing, hooking, sorting yarns—are learned with similar thoroughness. The child strengthens the muscles of his fingers, hands and arms, training them to work adeptly. He develops faculties of attention and concentration, with power to overcome difficulties and a sense of doing something useful to others.

The periods of "silence," which the children have each day, are potent factors in strengthening self-control, as well as steady attention. All the children sit in their seats, while the teacher stands, either facing or behind them, and for a few moments they are perfectly still. You could hear a pin drop; all listen intently until, presently, the teacher speaks a name, in the faintest whisper—that child hears it, rises softly and, with the least noise possible, makes its way, on tip-toe, across the room to the teacher's side. It is a game the children enjoy; it gives them a brief rest and counts for much in their unconscious steps toward self-mastery.

Visitors at the Casa dei Bambini often wonder at the skill with which the tots of four or five wait upon the table at the children's luncheons. But their hands have been trained to adeptness quite independent of the eyes. Blind-fold games and tasks have added to the tactual skill, fitting in with the general plan of all-round physical development. The children spend much time in the open air; they play freely on

the swinging chairs, parallel bars, rope ladders and the circular, sliding stairway. Breathing, marching, dancing exercises are frequent.

One does not see the narrow chests and stooped shoulders of desk-confined children in this school. The pupils are ruddy-faced, bubbling with energy and straight-limbed.

With fingers and muscles skilfully trained, the children are ready for the elements of language and numbers. Where a primary teacher, under the old methods, hangs up a chart or makes figures on a blackboard, the Montessori teacher gives the child letters cut out of sandpaper and pasted on cardboard. The little fingers trace these tangible forms, becoming familiar with the curves of the letters just as they will later make them in writing. Some day, when familiar with the shape of the vowels and many consonants, the child is given a piece of chalk. He has potentially learned to write and suddenly finds himself in the possession of a new power. Inspired by the joy of discovery, he will spend hours at the blackboard in composing letters and words.

As he thus learns to write, the child takes the first step toward reading. The next step—interpreting the visual signs—is made a game. Cards bearing names of familiar objects are placed in a box. If, on picking out a card, the child reads the name correctly, he is given the object to play with. Or he may pass the toy to another child, and go on reading the cards. As they progress to sentences, cards bearing brief requests to perform some action are given the children. They read and perform the act, thus relating each step closely to the life about them.

This is the real secret of the Montessori method. All materials and exercises are so closely linked with the every-day life of the child that they parallel his muscular and mental growth with marvelous accuracy. This results in swift, unimpeded progress; children of five or six, under Montessori instruction,

often perform with ease tasks that would be assigned to pupils two or three years older in the graded schools.

Dr. Montessori began her teaching in 1906 among defective and backward children in the social-settlement schools. Its success, within a year, led her to apply the method to normal children, and her "Casa dei Bambini" are now given entirely to them. Her plan has been tried successfully in many schools of Italy, Switzerland and France.

The first Montessori school in this country was opened at Tarrytown, New York, in 1911. It was taught by Anne E. George, the first American student trained by Dr. Montessori. A second school, at Washington, D. C., followed in 1912, with such distinctive results that the parents of the children installed a National Montessori Association. Its purpose is to extend this method of teaching to all parts of the country; at the same time to afford laboratory and experimental opportunities for research at the Washington school.

Such rapid survey of the Montessori plan, while permitting only a glimpse of its technic, indicates its trend and the vital relation it bears to the child forward movement of today. Its significance clearly lies in the emphasis placed upon the individual, character-building traits of the child at the critical time when life habits are being formed.

The ancient Persian theory of child-training had its merits. "To shoot an arrow, ride a horse and tell the truth" were the three essentials. It inculcated accuracy, self-control and honor. The result was a conquering race and a literature, while not extensive, of remarkably clear, sparkling quality. It escaped

Hand-Work Sloyd.

the error seen in most modern systems of relying too much on eye and ear training with books alone, at the sacrifice of poise and, often, health. To correct this error the recent trend toward hand-work and manual arts is a logical step. The greater part of the race has to depend upon the hand for a livelihood. To secure manual dexterity is no longer treated as a minor part of the public school program.

Froebel centered upon this thought in his kindergarten plan from the beginning. To cultivate self-reliance and self-activity he connected "manual labor with every study." Though he applied the thought only to the simplest elements of study, his influence reached far beyond that in its logical outcome.

One of Froebel's early students, Uno Cygnaeus, after a course of study at Keilhau, returned to his native Finland, in 1840. Within a decade Cygnaeus revolutionized teaching methods in his country by introducing an original system of hand-training, now known as slojd or sloyd. This included varieties of wood-carving, cabinet-making, pottery and even crude forms of iron-moulding. The students were encouraged to high excellence by permission to take their work home and, if exceptionally good, to sell it.

The plan was taken up in some three hundred schools of Russia; then, carried over to Sweden, where it became a chief factor in the elementary school course. A new teaching method was perfected in the great University of Naas, and in 1870, sloyd was made compulsory in all the public schools. As manual skill requires good health, physical culture and compulsory hygiene soon became essential parts of the public school training.

It was about the same period that the importance of manual instruction was recognized in many schools of England and America. At Girard College,

one of the large institutions where sloyd was introduced in the '80's, it has contributed to the efficiency of many graduates.

More than a striking coincidence is pointed out by Price Collier, in a recent work, entitled "The West in the East." He pays tribute to its highly effective school training, and adds "in Sweden the average length of life is 50 years for men and 53 for women, **the highest in the world.** In the United States the average lifetime is 44 years for men and 46 for women. The average length of life for men in India is 23 years and for women 24." This seems substantial proof that a well-trained hand has much to do with the bodily poise and self-control that spell longevity.

It was an old Hebrew ideal that even though a man entered a learned profession he should be able to do some life-sustaining work with his hands. Paul was a tent-maker and the famous rabbi, Hillel, made sandals. Gladstone—among modern leaders—found wood-chopping made a most excellent diversion from intellectual labors. Few thoughtful men mature without recognizing the value of such a manual avocation.

The Little Red Schoolhouse.

In the American district schools, dotting a thousand hillsides and crossroads from Eastport to El Paso, were planted the germs of a new social freedom. Fair and equal opportunity for schooling given to every child in the community was the ideal first experimented with in New England. It has since become dominant in every State and township of the Union. Accepted now as, perhaps, the most vital part of every civic program, there was no precedent when it was first proposed to extend the same instruction to **all** children. They builded better than they knew; the act carried with it all later declarations of equality and progress.

Only sixteen years after the landing at Plymouth, the settlers of Massachusetts Bay were laying the foundations of the first university in this country. For a decade earlier they had been planting little log-cabin schoolhouses with every score or two of families. Then came the famous—

ORDINANCE OF 1647

(in which it was made compulsory by the Colonial Assembly)
"That every township, after that the Lord hath increased them to fifty householders, shall FORTHWITH appoint one within their town to teach ALL SUCH CHILDREN as shall resort to him to read and write."

The Ordinance also required that upon increasing to one hundred families, every township must open a "Grammar School," to enable any or all pupils applying to prepare for a university course. The supreme fact which makes this **Ordinance** one of the landmarks of history is its first public recognition of the right of **every child in the community** to correct instruction upon free, equal terms.

Other northern colonies and, later, all the States followed the same liberal plan of free, common schools. Congress placed on it the seal of national sanction when, in 1789, the Northwest Territory was set apart and it was ordered that in every township a square mile (one-sixteenth section) should be reserved for public school purposes. Again, in 1848, when the first provision did not seem ample enough, Congress enacted that in all States constituted after that time two square miles (or one-eighth) of each township section be devoted to the schools.

The wars of this country, taken in the aggregate, have cost about four billion dollars. Census figures show that the expenditure upon the public schools by the nation and States has equaled $500,000,000 each

year for the past two decades. **In the brief space of twenty years past there has been spent for the school children more than twice the total cost of all our wars.**

It was from the rural, or district, schools that the men came who fired, at Concord, "the shot heard round the world," and stood firm at Yorktown and Gettysburg. The same generic type of district school prevailed in both town and country until recent years. Ornate city structures have not shown a superiority of product over the little red schoolhouse that trained the budding statesmen, captains of industry, scientists and inventors of the earlier days.

Consider, for a moment, the sheer magnitude of the present public school army. More than twenty million children, led by a trained corps of 550,000 teachers, march forward into the larger knowledge that means self-mastery, a world conquest, the highest social standard yet attained by man. For potential influence there is no record of a unified body, under one direction, that can be compared with this children's army. As its course is shaped will the world's history turn for centuries. That these school children of America today hold the destiny of the race cannot be gainsaid.

Yet, with all our largess to the schools, a mere beginning has been made. The public moneys have been spread over a wide area and not always wisely spent. It is interesting to note that the appraised value of the entire national school plant in this country is only $1,350,000,000—less than **one per cent.** of the total wealth of the United States. This means that what we spend in three years to maintain the schools exceeds the value of the plant—not a true, economic ratio. There should be more permanent improvements, a much larger equipment.

Even in the way of current maintenance, this country spends less, pro rata, upon the schools, than does Germany or Sweden. Our expenditure per capita to entire population is only $3.90 per year, and only

$27.98 per pupil annually. In view of their vital bearing upon the nation's progress this expenditure for schools may well be regarded as only a beginning. When less tax income is wasted upon battleships and public extravagance, there will be ampler funds available for the education of the child.

This will permit thorough and intensive improvement of the school plant, with broader plans for vocational training; also a standardizing of rural schools, so that it may be possible to bring up less advanced districts to the level of the best. Until this is brought about we shall not have attained the ideal of the **common** school.

In the cities the latest tendency has been toward more individual training; less toward herding the children in large groups of fifty or more. A glimpse of the newer-type city school is seen in a recent report of the Russell Sage Foundation. Instead of an ornate, towering structure, it recommends a plain, two-story building, with ample grounds for exercise and play; the assembly room on the first floor to contain portable seats, so that it may be used for social-center meetings; above, small classrooms with domestic science and manual training departments; in the basement, swimming pools, shower baths and gymnasiums.

The great weakness of public school training in this country for a generation or more has been its indirection. Most youths, who have left the schools at the minimum age for wage-earning, have disappeared into the "blind alleys" of futile employment.

Continuation Schools.

Germany pointed the way to solve this problem years ago when she instituted the part-time or **Continuation School.** The efficacy of this plan lies in holding the youth to a consistent course of training throughout the formative period (fourteen to eighteen), and at the end of this time to leave him well-equipped for mastery of his life vocation.

The pioneer steps to introduce the German continuation school plan in America were taken by Dean Schneider, at the University of Cincinnati. In 1906 he selected two hundred and fifty boys from the engineering department of the university and placed them on part-time work in various machine, pattern, drafting and printing shops of the city. While the shops gave the boys practical training, the university taught them the theory. In the first few years the plan was tried out the boys came to the shops one-half hour each week and were paid the usual shop wages for that time.

The plan grew with testing. The college department of Cincinnati University, as a part of the public school system, now offers a six-year, half-time course —twelve months a year—for the training of civil, mechanical, electrical, chemical and municipal engineers.

Every two weeks the boys take the regular college course; during the alternate periods they are on the job at the shops. If he is training for a municipal engineer, the lad goes down into the city viaducts and helps to lay the concrete; or, if for a civil engineer, he may be part of a maintenance-of-way gang on a railroad; in structural iron and bridge-building, he may run a pneumatic "gun" for driving bolts.

Close observers note a sharp difference in the attitude of these school-and-shop boys toward their work as compared with that of the purely academic students. The part-time workers have found something that means success in a life career; so, they drive at it with the same energy they put into football or swimming. Even their theses show the same downright earnestness.

The railroads entering Cincinnati visioned an opportunity and opened up their whole equipment as laboratories for the boys of the College of Engineering. In the carpentry and concrete gangs, on structural iron building, frog-switch and signal work, as

well as the engineering corps, every facility was given the part-time lads to qualify as master workmen. Other corporations, desiring real apprentices, joined in the movement, with cumulative benefit to both student and industry.

At Fitchburg, Mass., a manufacturers' association hearing of Dean Schneider's success asked him to prepare a plan for industrial training that would fit the local needs. The result was the first public co-operative high school in the country, with a graded four-year course—one week in school, the next at the shop. At Providence, R. I.; St. Louis, Cleveland and Rochester, the plan has shown equal adaptation to the local situations. The salient point of the new industrial school plan is the free opportunity it gives to all bright boys to come "from the bottom up to the top," on sheer merit of work, without capital, class favoritism or any extrinsic influence. This was essential if both schools and industries were to remain democratic.

The vocational co-operative plan fits the girl-workers no less than the boys. A group of textile manufacturers in New York, with many female operatives, combined, in 1912, to send their younger employees to school for alternate weeks. In the morning session they studied business science, commercial arithmetic and writing. The noon hour was given over to domestic science, the girls cooking their own luncheon; there was also study of marketing, home cleaning and household budgets. The afternoons study of textiles, details of manufacture, dyeing and were chiefly devoted to dressmaking, millinery and prices. The girls increased in efficiency; at the same time they realized that their employers were sincerely interested in their welfare. While the plan cost the employers about $5000 each annually, apart from loss of wage-time, as the girls were paid for full periods

of work, the verdict was that it paid for itself in higher quality of service and production.

While "made in Germany," the continuation school plan has shown unique adaptabilities to the American spirit. A recent newspaper editorial cites two cases of "personally conducted" continuation school work, distinctly typical of America's free and larger opportunities:—

> Case No. 1. James S., colored, began as an elevator boy at the university at $35 a month. For four years he saved part of his wages each month. Then, he entered the University Law School, retaining his job as elevator boy. He adapted his study schedule to his work schedule, taking a few courses each year. But he kept at it until he got his LL. B. degree. During his course he would sit beside his classmates in recitation room or library, then go out into the hall, take charge of his car and take his classmates down to the street. So far from thinking worse of him for working his way through, his mates yielded him all respect as a top-notch student. After graduation this boy studied hard to be admitted to the bar, passed his examinations with honor and now enjoys a large practice. He recently headed a delegation of colored citizens to present an important petition to President Wilson. His income is said to exceed $8000 a year.
>
> Case No. 2. Joe L., a Jewish boy from New Jersey, was graduated from the high school and wanted to go to college, but his parents were too poor to send him. He secured a newspaper route and saved his earnings. As money came in slowly he looked about for some other means of earning. Competition was severe in several lines he tried; finally he determined to capitalize his physical equipment, which was above the ordinary. He began to train for the prize ring. After

licking every boy in the neighborhood, he gave notice he would meet "all comers" at his weight. Managers of boxing bouts began to go to see "Kid L." in the ring. They liked his looks and sparring ability; so, he began to get engagements at athletic clubs in and near New York. He made good as a feather-weight, soon having all the engagements he could handle. But he did not forget his college plans. With his first good-sized purse he came to the University Law School and paid the money down for a year's tuition. He is now in his senior year with high rank.

These not infrequent cases indicate no narrowing of the "gates of opportunity" in this country, nor a less indomitable spirit on the part of its youth today.

Home and School League.

A shrewd observer divides the usual life of the child, above six years, into two main parts: **School time**—five hours of five days a week for about ten months of the year; **Home time**—the remaining nineteen to twenty-four hours of every day in the year. This means about **one-seventh** of the time for the school influence, and **six-sevenths** for dominance of the home, whether the child is within its walls the entire non-school period or not. The proportion also indicates how far the school can shape the life-habits of the child, unless its work is seconded by that of the home.

Looking back to the primitive thought of a school in each home, perhaps the most significant trend in late years is the planning that would put more of the home in the school.

The origin of the movement known as the **Home and School League** is thus stated by those who know:

When Dr. Martin G. Brumbaugh entered upon his work, in 1905, as Superintendent of Public Schools in Philadelphia, he found pathetic chaos existing in the relations of parent and teacher. His office was

flooded with complaints; mothers came daily, leading tear-stained children who had been, they declared, improperly treated at school.

He saw at once the necessity of bridging over a chasm between two allied interests. Calling into conference active social workers he found that civic and mother clubs were at work upon the same problem.

Mrs. Mary V. Grice had formulated the main outlines of an association which would enable the mother and teacher to work together for the child. Aided by Dr. Brumbaugh, his colleagues, and many social agencies, the plan soon took active shape in sixty public schools, with thirty-eight affiliated organizations.

In most cases a local association was formed at the first meeting, under auspices of the Central League, composed of teachers, citizens and all the parents of the neighborhood, ex-officio. The school principal was usually an important executive, the officers, generally, being an elected committee of the neighborhood. The dues were always light and parents unable to pay had all the privileges except voting.

The League completed its central organization on October 4, 1907. Dr. Brumbaugh became its first honorary president and Mrs. Grice its first executive head. Within the next year, in this one city, nearly two hundred thousand people gathered at the different school buildings from time to time after school hours, not including some twenty-seven thousand young people and children who met at the new social centers for recreational instruction given by the League. Inquiries came from forty-five other cities and the movement took on a national scope.

The activities of local associations varied with community needs. As a rule, social and educational meetings alternated. The serious programs would usually consist of a lecture or informal talk upon

subjects affecting the welfare of children, better relations between the home and school, the qualities of good citizenship, physical care of the child or the influence of environment.

The social meetings took the shape of stereopticon lectures or moving pictures; musicals, vocal entertainments and even informal dances for the young people. In the case of one school where these dances were held, two low dance halls in the neighborhood were compelled to close for lack of patronage.

The neighborhood influence is seen in concerted movements to improve sanitary conditions; to open new playgrounds; remove unsightly and vulgar billboards; institute wholesome, cheap lunches for the children; or start classes in sewing or cooking for poor mothers in the foreign settlements.

Within the school premises the presence of the League is also amply evidenced. It has supplied bookcases, pianos, classroom decorations, trees for the school grounds, materials and equipment for extra classes that could not have been opened if compelled to wait for supplies from the regular official source. The League has made it possible for many teachers to take advanced summer school work. Through social center gatherings it has changed the complexion of entire neighborhoods, even reaching families not directly touched by the school. Among such activities, neighborhood savings banks have been opened at various points.

In country, as well as city districts, this effort to harmonize the related work of parent and teacher in a circle about the complete life the child has rapidly taken root. The task is of such magnitude that only the slight beginnings are yet seen. These are germinal, however, in their promise of a truer childhood and a more altruistic social life.

Health Problems. To train wholesome, efficient citizens we need healthy school children. The hygiene of today has, therefore, taken a broad range. It began with medical inspection of the schools; then, rapidly developed into a general "health supervision." Its scope now embraces every praticable means of health-teaching.

Dr. David Starr Jordan states the problem in a sentence: "The most promising field for conserving life and health is the unformed and still plastic child." In other words, to attain a higher national vitality or life-level there are no means so direct as the right shaping of health-habits in the young. The public schools give the essential opportunity.

A startling array of figures, based upon the medical inspection census of the schools, was presented to the National Teachers' Association in 1912. It showed that at least 10,000,000 **(about fifty per cent.)** of the school children were or had been infected with some form of tuberculosis; that about 6,000,000 **(over thirty per cent.)** had enlarged tonsils, cervical glands or adenoids which needed attention; that some 2,000,000 **(ten per cent.)** were suffering from grave forms of malnutrition; that approximately 15,000,000 **(over seventy-five per cent.)** had sufficiently defective teeth to interfere with their health; that 5,000,000 **(about twenty-five per cent.)** had defective vision; that about 1,000,000 **(five per cent.)** had spinal curvature, flat-foot or other structural deformities; 1,000,000 **(five per cent.)** suffered from defective hearing; about 1,000,000 more **(five per cent.)** from serious forms of nervous disorder.

The logic of this diagnosis was an insistent demand for higher health standards. Less than twenty per cent. of the school children conformed to the normal type. In the homes of the other eighty per cent., therefore, the need for correct health instruction was obvious. It became imperative that teacher and parent should join hands to encourage the children in

habits of living that would enable them to escape both disease and inefficiency.

It would be hard to set bounds to the school's possible contribution to this end. Through vocational instruction, play supervision, moral training, health examinations, physical culture work, school feeding, the path has now been blazed out and lies straight ahead.

In most cities the schools are no longer centers of infection; advance steps have been taken toward correcting or removing the defects in vision, hearing, breathing or the structural deformities which prevent normal growth; through unity of the home and school influence have come marked changes in the daily environment and the habits which induce malnutrition, tuberculosis and nervous complaints. The school begins to think of the physical child not only in terms of today, but of the better standards of tomorrow.

Among vital problems to which effective attention is now being devoted is that of sex hygiene. Beginning with the simpler facts of plant and insect growth, the child-mind is led into the interesting realm of biological change. The processes common to both animal and man lose their mystery and morbidity at the same time. There will be slight danger of sex perversion when the laws of physiological growth are stated with the simplicity of truth. Children will not fear nor be attracted by phantoms when they understand the inevitable logic of sex inter-relations.

Many of the rural schools offer as important a field for health work as the crowded city institutions. Examination into the hook-worm evil among Southern school children showed this. The Rockefeller Sanitary Commission made preliminary infection surveys in 230 counties of eleven States. It found that among 158,555 rural school children, six to eighteen years old, who were examined microscopically, there were 78,572, or **fifty-one** per cent., actively infected

with pellagra, or the hook-worm. These school children were no more fitted for mental instruction than were their parents (likewise infected) for useful industry.

School Luncheons.

The East Side lad of ten, who replied to his teacher's question as to what he had for breakfast with the brief remark: "Pretzel; glass of beer"—was as well, if not better off, than many of the slum children who go to school with empty stomachs. To remedy the folly of trying to impart knowledge to hungry, or half-starving, pupils some schools began to provide inexpensive or nominal-priced meals. This plan has never meant entirely free provision of the food, but to make it possible for the poorest school children to obtain some adequate nourishment.

Success attended the plan from the first and it is now an essential part of the new health program in the schools. Such clear mental and physical improvement of the children followed where the plan was introduced that it is no longer seriously opposed in any quarter.

Many of the children who were accustomed to spend their pennies for the purple, green and black candies vended near the schools, now find more satisfaction in the pretzels, cocoa and fruits of the school lunch table. The candy-poisoner has been put out of business at many points as an incident of the school lunches.

It is surprising how good a luncheon can be served the children for one or a few pennies. One cent can provide a bean or velegtable soup with bread, or cake with stewed fruit. The following are sample menus for **three-cent dinners:—**

Cocoa.

1. Apple Butter. Sandwich.
2 Dates. 1 Graham Wafer.

Corn Chowder

2. **Bread. Graham Wafer.**
1 Banana.

Baked Beans.
3. **Bread. 1 Pretzel.**
5 Stewed Prunes.

4. **Macaroni with Tomato Sauce, or Macaroni with Hamburg Steak and Brown Bread.**
Milk Lunch. Gravy.
Small Orange.

In many schools the expense of preparing and serving the school lunches is provided by the social service of the Home and School League or voluntary associations of alumnae. Where the entire cost is assumed by the School Board itself the addition to the annual budget is not large.

The physical benefit to the children is more than paralelled by corresponding mental gain in their studies; often there is surprising improvement also in general conduct and manners. Some learn for the first time what really good food is and this has direct influence upon their home life.

Careful tests were made at the psychological clinic for children maintained by Dr. Lightner Witmer, at the University of Pennsylvania, to ascertain comparative changes in the physical and mental growth of the children taking school meals. Examining groups of 50 "diners" and "non-diners"—in five selected schools—at the end of six months the "diners" showed a marked superiority in every test. This was indicated, as to physical growth, by the figures for the stated period, as follows: Gain in weight, .23 pounds; gain in height, .29 inches; gain in increased lung capacity, 5.40 cu. inches. The superior progress of the "diners" over "non-diners," in scholarship averages, was represented by the ratio: 9.5 to 7.2, and in general conduct the superiority was as 3.7 to 3.3.

A school board that would at this day refuse to spend a few dollars to put red blood into anemic bodies or to assist the brains of underfed pupils in assimilating their intellectual food could be properly classified as still in the medieval epoch.

Child Leadership.

Into the "melting pot" of the public schools have been poured race elements from every part of the globe. On the East Side of New York City there are schools where all the children are Hebrews; in one foreign quarter of Newark, New Jersey, another school is given over entirely to pupils of Italian parentage. But the rule is to find in the congested districts the scions of a score of races mingling in strange confusion. It would have fared ill with the free institutions of this country had the fathers not builded better than they knew in establishing a common school system. It is entirely through the aspiring children of these alien visitants that the social life and ideals that have made America can be preserved. It is the "leadership of the child" that is transforming their alien motives and habits into conformity with our own.

Interesting proof of how much can be done through the schools, in a brief period, toward creating new citizens is seen in the neighborhood gatherings conducted by the New York Public Education Association in a school located on East Fourth street between avenue A and First avenue. The residents of this section are nearly 90 per cent. Russian and Hungarian Jews, with a sprinkling of about 10 per cent Germans.

There was nothing sensational about the plan. It was quickly set in motion by the kindergarten teachers of the school. They were in close touch with the mothers of the neighborhood and appealed to them through the needs of the children.

On the first night there was an attendance of forty-five, most of them mothers, with a few business men of the vicinity. Attention was centered upon the unsightly condition of the streets and efforts set afoot, with the aid of the school pupils, that brought radical changes.

With improved surroundings grew up a deeper regard for their homes and the locality. Meetings were held in the kindergarten classroom each Wednesday evening. Beside the regular business, the program usually consisted of entertainment and a twenty-minute address, followed by a general discussion of the topic of the evening. Local talent furnished recitations, instrumental and vocal music; there was folk dancing by girls from the recreation center and "old-home songs."

The latter were sung at the close of the meeting, when all gathered about the piano and "joined in." Enthusiasm often ran high as topical lines were set to familiar airs.

This stanza, sung to the tune of Annie Laurie and entitled "New York Town," shows the spirit that prevailed:—

"Maxwelton's braes are bonnie,
And England's fields are fair,
Ireland's hills are green and sunny,
But, old New York's most dear,
But, old New York's most dear,
For she's all the world to me,
And to help her and to save her,
I'd lay me down and dee."

The evenings in the school led to action. Among other social results were efforts to secure distribution of clothing to poor children in many parts of the East side; better police protection at school crossings; investigation of moving picture shows in the vicinity, co-operation with a nearby settlement campaign for the sick babies.

The trend of the evening discussions is shown in such programs as these: "How to Deal With the Boys"; "Choosing a Profession"; "Care of the Children's Teeth"; "Improving the Comic Supplement"; "The Big Brother Movement," and "School Lunches." As the result of talks on forestry, picnic trips were taken by the entire neighborhood to the city parks.

Though intended at first only for the men and women of the neighborhood, the boys and girls were soon keenly interested in various social phases of the weekly gatherings. In a common desire and effort to improve conditions for the children, no barrier of race or religious difference was allowed to interfere. The entire locality was unified for the uplift of the child.

From the outset general oversight of the project was entrusted to Miss Annie C. Patterson, a trained social worker, who gave this graphic summary of its meaning:—

> **"We can say from our experience in a very little corner of a big city that the spirit of the fathers who laid the foundations of our democracy still lives through the disturbing changes of the years. We are convinced that this spirit can be made articulate even in the crowded cities, if encouraged and given a chance to function. This means that every public school of this city, and of every city in the country, must again become in spirit and essence 'the little red school-house on the hill.'"**

BABIES—LOST AND FOUND

Chapter Four.

THE CHILD ADRIFT.

THE "child-criminal" has disappeared. Under tests of the Juvenile Court, it is discerned that the line supposed to mark off moral error from mental defect is imaginary. Most court offenders are stunted in mental growth, or distinctly feeble-minded. None is now classed as "incorrigible," for to change the environment invariably changes the child. A judge would be thought worthy of impeachment who would now punish the young offender as though he were able to frame a clear, deliberate intent.

Keen observers go further than this and contend that the good in every child will predominate if given a reasonable chance. His presence in court is evidence of conditions that ought to be changed. This was long known, but only within a few years have the courts begun to apply the constructive remedies that aim to place the child under the conditions he can justly demand, if society is to hold him responsible for his acts.

This logic of cause and effect is put with much force by the experienced Luther Burbank: "The child absorbs environment. It is the most susceptible thing in the world to influence. If that force be applied rightly and constantly when the child is in the most receptive condition the effect will be pronounced, immediate and permanent."

This being true, by what law does society expect to produce a crop of good citizens in the slums or expect the public schools to turn out a bright, intelligent child, while he is trained by vicious parents?

The child who has missed the way of normal growth has not had time to drift far. It is, therefore, not at all surprising that slight efforts will often suffice to set him right again. Sometimes a kindly word; as a rule, steady, rational treatment for a few months at best is ample; the normal child reappears, where had seemed only a stupid or vicious one.

Juvenile Court Influences.

All this is matter of every-day observation in the Juvenile Courts. They are now referred to as "children's clinics" in some cities. The Binet Test of intelligence, with its five-fold series of questions, soon determines the child's mental age or status. He may be placed for temporary aid or study in the detention home attached to the court. Meantime, the probation officer investigates the home and parental conditions. When the judge decides upon a permanent remedy for the errant child, he has before him, like the physician, facts that make up a careful diagnosis.

The first "children's court" of this type was officially set up at Chicago, in 1899. But, for some years before that Judge Ben Lindsay, at Denver, had been working out the pioneer experiment in this field. He interpreted broadly a State law for the probationary treatment of "juvenile disorderly persons" to include all children charged with minor offences. He remains the typical "children's judge," though his work has had frequent parallels in other cities.

Within the first two years of his work Judge Lindsey placed "on probation" 554 children; of the entire number only 31 returned to court a second time. Examination into the home surroundings of these delinquents proved that not one had a fair chance to go straight. Where the home did its part the child never came back to court.

Judge Lindsey always used the direct, personal method. Sending a boy from the court to his office, he would give him a frank talk, probably the first he

had ever had, upon the sure result of an evil course in life. Then, the judge appealed to the boy's latent manhood. It was a case of faith triumphant. The custom had always been to send the boys committed to the State Reform School, forward to the institution by train in charge of a court officer. These boys were usually second offenders—the hardest of all to manage. Judge Lindsey put each of the boys "on honor," then gave him a railroad ticket, and sent him on to the school **alone.** The official record is that **"not a single boy failed to show up."**

The boys **on probation** showed the same spirit. Assured that he was their friend, rarely would they go back on "the Judge."

After ten persistent years in dealing with every class of juvenile offender, the "children's judge" decisively affirmed: "All the child needs is essential justice—a square deal. Of the thousands of children that we have dealt with not more than ten per cent. have returned for second offences and we estimate **ninety-six per cent.** have made good in the end."

Not alone in Denver, but as well in many other cities, the Juvenile Court has proved a central point from which have radiated many allied efforts for child-welfare. Its psychopathic clinics, educational classes and detention-home work have helped to enforce the compulsory education laws; have stimulated child labor reforms, the work for public playgrounds, baths and summer camps; and especially have strengthened the demand for vocational training.

The work of Judge Lindsey made such an appeal to John Hay, Secretary of State, that its importance was later brought to the attention of Congress in a special message by President Roosevelt. It was presented in an address to the British House of Commons by Herbert Gladstone; approved by Professor Frendenthal, representing the German Emperor; and by prominent officials throughout Europe interested in the work for children.

While much depends upon the personality of the judge and he must exercise rare discretionary powers, yet the main lines of Juvenile Court reclamation work for children in trouble are now well-defined and successfully applied in all parts of the country:—

> **The child may be reprimanded for bad-conure of probation; his home and daily environment should be studied; mental defects must be analyzed by the searching Binet tests and construct-duct, but never harshly blamed; in ninety-eight of a hundred cases he should be given full measive remedies applied with the same care that an infant's food is adapted to its special stage of growth; personal oversight should be continued by Court and probation-officer until the errancy is "cured"; which means that a normal measure of play and study are obviously fitting the child to take care of itself and do something worthwhile for others.**

This new reformatory, not punitive justice, can only be administered by permanent or special judges, familiar with the phases of child-life and keenly sympathetic. The universal significance of the Juvenile Court lies just here, in its demand that the errant child shall have, not charity, but **justice,** if it is to be held responsible for itself and to the community.

The evolution of the children's courts brings forward no character of greater potency or interest than the **probation officer.** Under expert guidance this work has been largely committed to the hands of women, who visit the "probationers" in their homes, study local environments, give constant advice, and report to the court when the conditions it has laid down appear to be fulfilled. This is peculiarly a mother's task, for the probation officer steps in and gives the child the specific oversight its parents should have given it. She is the State acting as "parens patriae."

Probation Officers.

Life, itself, is a probation—a testing time. This court guardian for the child stands, often, at the

parting of the ways. She may add to the work of the teacher and home just what is needed to spell a life's destiny. With opportunities for specific tests she can point out to the child's teacher what instruction is needed to overcome its mental defects. Where the home is obviously unfit the probation officer can guide the court in selecting the best substitute for the home. This requires much thought where the child's parents are criminals or degenerates. Most children taken out of such homes under the eighth year can be saved.

The industrial boy or girl can be guided out of some "blind alley" into a character-making employment; taught how to save and spend money; what are the best kind of amusements. For these purposes the probation officer must become a social expert; must study the moving picture shows, dance halls and other commercialized play-houses of the vicinage; also utilize to the utmost the influence of play-centers, clubs, Christian associations, or the church guilds consonant with the child's training and disposition.

Comparing the East and West, an official report of the Chief Probation Officer of Essex County, New Jersey, J. J. Gasgoyne, bears out Judge Lindsey's estimate of the probationary system. In April, 1912, there were under the charge of this court official and his sixteen assistants, 1617 probationers; 412 juvenile delinquent were placed on probation during that current year, of which number 42 (a trifle over **ten per cent.**) were returned for a second offence. The records of this Juvenile Court, located at Newark, N. J., showed a total of 5863 delinquents committed to the probation officers in twelve years. It was fairly computed from the annual returns that **ninety per cent.** of the probationers had been saved from a permanent career in crime. Under the old system of punitive

justice the proportion of confirmed criminals would have been reversed.

Through the kind offices of a philanthropic woman, **one hundred cases,** selected at random from the delinquents before this same Juvenile Court at Newark, were submitted to unusually thorough tests. The effort was made not only to ascertain the exact mental retardation in each case, and its causes, but also how far the children could be held responsible for their acts. The general result of the study was to confirm the belief that in abnormal types of children, while the body may grow the mind remains virtually at a standstill.

Tests of Responsibility.

The range of age in these one hundred delinquents was from 10 to 17 years. **Thirty-four** were between the ages of 10 and 14, and these showed the least retardation; their average mental age, however, was only 9 1-3 years, and the older children of the group showed a retardation of 3½ years; only one of this group, a ten-year child, showed a normal mind-growth, according to the Binet scale. **Sixty-six** of the children were between the ages of 14 and 17; these were all so backward in mental growth that they were classed as distinctly "feeble-minded"; the average mental age of the group was only 9 2-10 years; some of them showed mental retardation below their calendar age of 7 to 8 years; for instance, one child of 17 years, nominally, had the mentality of a child of 8 2-5 years; another child, nominally 15½, showed the intelligence of a child of 7 4-5 years.

Two facts stood out prominently in these tests: First, that out of one hundred cases of delinquent children, only **one** showed a mental condition normal at its age; second, that as the children grew older their mental retardation increased; while their physical body and animal propensities grew stronger, their mental condition was stationary and, therefore, less

able to control their vagrant impulses. These are basic psychological facts.

As mental retardation and immoral conduct were thus found closely allied in **ninety-nine per cent.** of the cases, and the "feeble-mindedness" grew more pronounced with each successive year, the conclusion was obvious, that the sooner these abnormal children were taken in hand the better. It is out of such material—of children who have barely passed out of infancy in mental growth, with maturing bodily impulses, and no adequate intelligence to control or direct them—that society makes most of its adult criminals. It can less afford to ignore their mental or moral training, than to stunt their physical growth.

To illustrate this close relation between mental weakness and immoral conduct requires analysis of only a few individual cases, indicating also the environing causes. These are fair samples:—

Girls.

MABEL B.
16 years old physically.
10 years old mentally.
Taken by her mother from a laundry, where she and another girl had been spending the night with two Chinamen. Mother, herself, living with a man to whom she is not married.

NINA N.
15 1-2 years old physically.
9 3-5 years old mentally.
Father an alcoholic degenerate; mother and older sister in houses of ill-fame. This girl apparently without moral sense; steals, associates with commonest types of men, even yelling at them from House of Detention. Cannot associate her acts with punishment. Is a well-developed girl of unusual beauty.

MARJORY J.

15 years of age physically.
10 2-5 years old mentally.
Taken by her brother from house of ill-fame in New York, where she and another girl of same age had been spending two weeks; ran away from public school; is unmoral and abandoned in conduct.

ISABELLE K.

15 years old physically.
10 2 5 years old mentally.
Answered an advertisement as a nurse girl. The woman who employed her was a widow with a child of four to be looked after during the day, as the woman was obliged to work for her living.

The girl reported to her older sister and a friend of the same age (where they lived away from their home in a furnished room) that she was alone with the boy all day. So the following morning, the three girls came to the house and with three suit cases carried away all the jewelry, underwear, clothes, etc., that the woman had and "what do you think," the girl said in the House of Detention, "we got to give them things back."

Boys.

JAMES P.

11 years old physically.
8 years old mentally.
With crowd of boys who set fire to hay stack.

All the boys escaped being caught but James. Said he was only watching the fire and did not know why the other boys ran.

TONY A.

15 years old physically.
9 2-5 years old mentally.
Playing craps with six other boys; only boy caught—said "didn't know why the other fellows ran—thought they were running to a fire." Boy was arrested by officer on beat.

FRANK C.
16 years old physically.
9 3-5 years old mentally.
Never taught to obey—constantly breaking probation. Cannot hold position long—is lazy. After failing to report for six weeks at Probation Office, Probation Officer saw the boy driving a horse and carriage. The officer called to the boy. Upon seeing the Officer, the boy jumped from the wagon and ran down the street, the chase creates a commotion and the boy was caught. Had the boy stayed in the wagon and driven away, he would not have been caught.

LOUIS M.
14 years old physically.
9 years old mentally.

Placed on probation for stealing at 12 years of age. Two years later stole $14 from his sister—ran away. Was finally brought home—sent to the State Home for Boys. Three months after his release, he was charged with the crime of burglary and has been sent back.

That these were cases of distinct "feeble-mindedness" it hardly required a Binet Test to confirm. These straying waifs lacked every essential element of moral character, and it was evident they had never been given a fair opportunity to acquire it. Virtually without any correct mental training, it might seem more reasonable to class them as "mind-less," rather than feeble-minded.

The Binet Test, or Measuring Scale of Intelligence, applies a five-fold series of questions to the children and grades them according to their relative progress. The scale affords, in most cases, a remarkably close estimate of the mentality of the child. Wherever this test has been applied to delinquent children, it is invariably shown that a very high percentage of them are mentally defective. Out of 100 boys recently examined at the Rahway Reformatory in New Jersey, throwing out all doubtful cases, 25

per cent. was distinctly classed as "feeble-minded." A similar examination of 100 cases in the Girls' Reformatory showed about equivalent results. This was corroborated by a test in the Massachusetts Reformatory for Boys, while the same test applied to girls coming out, on probation, from the Girls' Reformatory in Massachusetts, showed that all but four, out of the fifty-six cases under test, were feeble-minded children.

This psychopathic study indicates how important it is to make clinical tests of all children brought before the Juvenile Courts, and then to base individual treatment upon the mental condition rather than upon the nominal age.

Institutional care is often indicated for those children so backward mentally that they have not the intelligence to control well-matured animal impulses, nor home environment under which it is possible for them to acquire it. To hold any child with such mental defect and without training in self-control to the normal standard of responsibility is no less unjust than inhuman.

As the result of the widely-extended researches into abnormal types of childhood that the Juvenile Court clinics have afforded, there is no longer any question that the earlier in its career the true mental discipline and instruction can be given to each child the more certain are the good results in citizenship and efficiency that the community would then have a right to expect.

Homeless Children.

The existence of a child implies a normal home, where it may be well cared for; that was the purpose of the first and of all homes. No one doubts that the child, without a safe home to grow up in, has "missed its way." Then, the State or a charitable agency must step in and provide a "substitutional home" for the straying child, with as many of the elements of true parental care as it is possible to secure. If this is not done

promptly, many of the little waifs die. If it were not done at all, it is doubtful whether the State itself could live, or at least maintain present standards. For at many points there has been a breaking down of family life and the number of homeless children has created a grave problem.

The Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania, established at Philadelphia in 1882, has made a notable record in this work of finding substitutional homes for destitute children. In June, 1913, the society had 676 young children placed out, boarding in selected private families, usually in the country districts. These were **real** homes, not merely places for the children to stay. Though not adopted, as a rule, the children are treated as members of the family, dress like other children, attend the public school when of suitable age, and are taken to church and Sunday-school by the families with whom they live. The society pays a moderate amount for board, provides medical care when needed and furnishes necessary clothing.

In selecting "homes" for the children, the visitors of the Children's Aid Society make a thorough study of the homes offered and become acquainted with the prospective caretakers and foster parents. To attain good results, the child and the home must be fitted together with great care. Occasionally families will offer to adopt a child, or to raise it free as their own, and sometimes offer to give a home and pay wages to the older children. In making these inspections, attention is paid to the home atmosphere, the religious and social affiliations, and every detail which may affect the future happiness of the child.

Watchful oversight and care of the boarding children requires just as persistent work as that shown in the original selection of homes. During the first five months of 1913, the visitors of the Children's Aid Society made 3184 unannounced visits to the boarding homes. These visits were supplemented by quarterly

CHILDREN'S HOSPITAL WARD

reports from ministers of churches and superintendents of Sunday-schools; regular reports from the school teachers; personal correspondence and, in some communities, the co-operation of local committees enabled the society to keep in close touch with its wards and all that concerned their welfare.

It is the aim of this society to keep parent and child together, where possible, and to this end homeless and destitute mothers—widows, deserted wives and unmarried mothers—are provided with carefully-selected situations in private families and otherwise assisted, in order that they may continue to take care of their babies. This plan avoids the separation of mother and child, often enabling the mother to become self-supporting, while it preserves her self-respect and develops a sense of responsibility for the welfare of her child. Fathers, who have lost their wives through death or desertion, are also encouraged, while given temporary help, to resume the care of their children as soon as they can provide a proper home. Only when both parents have disappeared, or are incompetent, physically and morally, is a permanent home arranged for under entirely new conditions for the child.

> **Among the assigned cases for homeless and neglected children, this society reports:—**
>
> **"There are deserted children whose parents are unable to care for them because of illness or physical defects. There are children one or both of whose parents are unfit to care for them because of intemperance, immorality, or cruelty, resulting in various forms of serious neglect. There are children who are illegitimate. There are children one or both of whose parents have been sent to prison. There are children whose fathers have died, leaving them in the care of a mother unable or unwilling to provide properly for them. There are children whose mothers have died, with the result that the home is broken up. There are children of deserted mothers who, for various reasons, are unable to care for them. There are**

children made homeless through the separation and neglect of one or both of their parents, and there are a few children who have lost both parents by death."

Even when both parents are living and not legally separated there are sometimes cases where the child must have a substitutional home, as where the mother may be dying in the hospital and the father intemperate; the father in prison and the mother feeble-minded or ill; both parents lazy, shiftless and immoral. These are a few of the many instances that set a child adrift and almost certain to go wrong unless a proper home is found for his right training.

The interest of the community in this work is apparent. Where the children are provided with the right kind of home they grow up almost invariably into self-supporting, useful citizens. If permitted to remain in neglect and squalor, the children become a menace to society and breed their like. The notorious Juke family, of New York State, is a familiar example, where from the brood of two shiftless degenerates, were directly descended more than 1200 convicted criminals, including murderers and thieves, most of them supported by the State during the greater part of their lives.

Child Institutions.

The earliest form of institution set apart exclusively for the care of children was the foundling asylum. It prepared the way for the orphan homes, many of which grew up in the medieval cities. The record of these institutions was not of the best; they could offer only a crude substitute for the home atmosphere and mother-nurture which the young child ought to have. So clearly is this recognized that the more advanced State and private institutions for child-care now invariably adopt the cottage or small-group plan instead of herding them in large buildings, as was the former case.

Hospitals devoted to the child alone have latterly aided much in giving the emergency care required by the child whose home fails to meet its needs.

A glimpse of the wide range of specialized service that has centered about these child institutions may be seen in a brief record of the **Babies' Hospital,** of Newark, N. J. It was established in 1896, with these purposes: (1) To provide a place for the treatment and care of the sick infants of the poor, otherwise without medical attendance; (2) to establish a school for training intelligent caretakers and nurses for children; (3) to furnish the poor suitable food for their infants at cost, and free to those who were destitute; (4) to afford scientific opportunity for study and increased knowledge of the diseases of infancy.

Although many of the infants received were in a desperate condition, this hospital has been able to reduce the child mortality rate to twenty per cent., considerably below the average for the congested districts. As it developed its out-patient service, with visiting physicians and nurses, and a free milk dispensary for the poor, its great work has been in keeping down the sick rate among babies of the city. In this beneficent work it has saved thousands of lives during nineteen years of service.

For sixty years a representative work in the care of sick babies has been carried on by the Children's Hospital of Philadelphia; remarkably efficient in a city long distinguished for its hospitals. Founded in 1855, about the earliest in the United States for the specific purpose, its record includes 28,569 ward patients and 241,275 dispensary cases cared for since that time. It not only affords every form of medical and surgical aid to sick infants through its wards, private rooms and dispensary clinics, but also in their homes, and care during convalescence in a country branch of the hospital.

As a part of its out-patient service, the Children's Hospital conducts an elaborate milk dispensary, providing carefully modified food for thousands of babies through the city. In the follow-up work of its visiting nurses and physicians it investigates all the home conditions surrounding the child patients. It thus helps many families to help themselves out of trouble and prevents at the home three or four cases of incipient disease for every one treated at the hospital.

This social service work has become so prominent a factor in its program that the Children's Hospital, upon recent completion of a new group of buildings, costing more than one million dollars, gave the first place in this great equipment and plant to the "out-patient" service. Dr. Richard C. Cabot, at the head of this service at the Massachusetts General Hospital, in Boston—probably the highest national authority on the subject—estimates the out-patient work as amounting to about 90 per cent. of its practical value to the community, and the in-patient service as about 10 per cent. Another institution where this home-service for little children has been advanced to a high stage of efficiency is the Harriet M. Lane Memorial Hospital for Children, at Baltimore.

A striking instance of the greater effectiveness of the individual or home-method of dealing with errant youth, as compared with what has been styled the "barrack-method," can be seen in the new work of the Pennsylvania State Reformatory for Girls, which was formerly known as the House of Refuge (Girls' Department), and removed five years ago from its crowded quarters in Philadelphia to a large country estate near Darlington, Delaware county.

"Sleighton Farm," as it is now called, from the former name of the estate, presents every aspect to the visitor of an attractive cottage colony. There is not the slightest suggestion of a prison or restraint. There are eight farm houses or cottage structures scattered

over a thirty-acre estate, where the four hundred odd girls have ample opportunity to learn farming and play all sorts of out-door games.

Upon arrival at Sleighton, the girls are placed in the reception house, known as the Lucretia Mott Cottage, where they are subject to some surveillance for the first three months. There they have no baseball or track teams, or special entertainments. They must eat their meals in silence and all wear the same kind of dress.

After the probation period, the girls are transferred to one of the honor cottages and allowed, according to age and character, a certain degree of self-government. Each cottage has a governing "council" of seven girls, comprising the Mayor, who is the matron's assistant; a health officer, who inspects the girls' rooms; a judge, a president, a clerk and two other girls. The council supervises everything that goes on in the cottage and sees to it that the work is done properly. They decide on the punishment of any girl violating the rules or privileges, if lazy or negligent in work, telling lies or passing notes to other cottages, which is regarded as a serious offense, each cottage keeping its affairs strictly to itself.

The punishment usually consists in being deprived of some privilege; the girl may be required to eat her meals in her room for two or three days—however bad, she is never deprived of regular meals—or she may have to go to bed right after supper, missing the evening's entertainment, or be deprived of her share in the Saturday amusements. These consist, on alternate weeks, of baseball games or races, the cottages competing with one another. Every two weeks there is a moving picture show and musical clubs and entertainments are frequent.

The girls, as a rule, are anemic and ill-nourished when they arrive at Sleighton, but soon grow stout and robust with regular meals and a careful regimen of out-door activities, including farming, gardening and grading work, in cottage groups. They are also taught domestic science, basket-work, raffia and other in-door trades, and their school-work is carefully suited to their age.

One of the severest penalties is that visited upon the girls who try to run away. It consists in cutting the hair short; then, the girl is "demoted" to the Lucretia Mott Cottage for three months, given hard work in the laundry for three months and no privileges. The girls who run away are usually of the brightest type, with the most initiative. They make the attempt, as a rule, while only a few months in residence on the farm, son after being transferred to an honor cottage. They have not yet learned to understand the honor system or to realize what the institution is trying to do for them. At a later date, this type of girl frequently finds a place on the "Council."

Long experience with erring girls has made Mrs. Falconer, who directs this institution, an ardent believer in the cottage-individual plan. She seeks to give good, new habits to the girls in place of the old, bad ones. The power to direct and control themselves, she believes, can only be acquired through self-government, with opportunities to exercise initiative and judgment. If given a uniform garb and made to eat in silence the girl is encouraged to believe herself different from other girls and becomes the more anti-social in proportion as she fancies society frowns upon her. She must be made to realize that society wants to help her and that her troubles are always the direct consequence of her own acts.

The sheer limit of pathetic, hopeless misery is seen in the fate of the young girl who is led astray before reaching even the years of partial discretion,

at 14. Recent, careful investigation of the Rockefeller Vice Commission in New York indicated that there were fifteen thousand young women living in open, commercialized vice in that city alone, and of this number there were numerous instances where the actual downfall had taken place as early as the seventh or eighth year. That most of the enslaved girls were victims of false training and environment became patent on close study.

White Slavery

A most interesting and important work for "straying girls" was that conducted in recent years by Miss Katherine Bement Davis, as superintendent of the State Reformatory for Women at Bedford Springs, N. Y. This institution takes most of the commitments from the New York City Courts of young women guilty of "gross immoral conduct" or crime growing out of illicit relations.

A searching analysis was made of the mental condition and facts surrounding the life of 647 inmates committed to the Bedford Reformatory. Their ages ranged from 16 to 30 years. Of the entire number it was shown, by the Binet Test, that 45 per cent. had never completed the primary grade of studies in school; 34 per cent. of the remainder had never passed the grammar grade, and only four (4) had ever taken up high school studies. Through additional tests it was shown that more than two hundred of the girls were either feeble-minded or mentally backward, while 23 girls were **actually insane!** Some of the girls, over sixteen, showed the mentality of a child of five; it was estimated that fully ninety per cent. should be classed as "mental defectives," and none of the remaining ten per cent. as actually normal.

The conclusion from these tests, as from those taken in the Juvenile Court, was that invariably some mental weakness showed itself closely allied with the immoral conduct.

Most significant also were the facts developed as to the **"age of danger"** for girls. One girl had committed the first sexual offense at the age of 7; three others at 9, 10 and 11, respectively; four at 12; twelve at 13; twenty-nine at 14; forty-three at 15; sixty-one at 16; forty at 17; thirty-one at 18; twenty-eight at 19, and only 48 began the immoral life at or above the age of 20.

The trend of all the evidence was that the chief danger zone lay between the age of 14 and 18, and **eighty per cent.** of the girls might have been saved from downfall if thorough precautionary or protective measures had been taken during that period. Some 166 of the girls had never known "either their father or mother." Of the remainder there was no evidence that any of the inmates had received proper home-training or been carefully safeguarded during the critical period. Otherwise it is inconceivable that 80 per cent. of the cases would have entered upon their immoral career before the age of 18.

In the effort to redeem these erring girls, a curative regimen was adopted at Bedford Hills as simple as it was home-like and effective. The girls were segregated in groups of about twenty-five, under the cottage plan, the younger and more innocent being kept strictly apart from the hardened cases.

The general discipline and tasks were those of a good industrial school. The girls studied elementary mathematics, the natural sciences, language, history, the manual arts. Physiology and sex hygiene were taught by the resident physician.

Most of the work on a 200-acre farm, adjoining the school, with the exception of heavy plowing, was performed by the girls. They gained much in physique and moral tone through this healthful exercise. Among other constructive achievements they proved adept in building a milk-house, a large silo, stairways and a sidewalk of concrete. Some of them

were carefully trained in laundry work, others in various sorts of needlecraft and domestic science, especially cooking. The aim in each case was to equip the girl to earn a competent livelihood in an honest way.

The amusement side of their life was amply met; dramatic and musical clubs provided special entertainments; there were plenty of good books and games; the tasks of each girl were carefully studied. In their moral training efforts were made to conform to native and earlier inclinations; the religious services were held for groups of the girls by clergymen of their respective denominations. In every way a social and community spirit was cultivated; the result was a radical change and improvement in about seventy per cent. of the cases.

After acquiring a thorough knowledge of farm work, many of these girls from Bedford Hills obtained good places with the families of prosperous farmers and made an unusual success of the new life that opened up to them. Miss Katherine Davis reported that the girls often married and led happy, lives, repelling the long-standing prejudice that the stigma of their former lives could not be removed.

In the growth of American cities no social fact has been more disheartening than the wide prevalence of the debasing traffic in "white slaves." It was small consolation, upon exposure of many cases in Court, to ascertain that a large proportion of the vile panderers in human virtue came from abroad. But systematic vice crusades have done much to cripple this revolting traffic. Education of both the community and its young people must complete the work.

The curious idea has somewhat prevailed that many of the "white slaves" have been held in actual bondage. A small number have, doubtless, been held in strict captivity, especially at the first. But many of them have walked the streets in apparent freedom. The bond that held them to the unspeakable creatures who traded in their virtue was fear. Most of them

were ignorant and economically helpless. The proportion of educated girls who become actual white slaves is very small. Her ignorance alone makes a girl the prey of such men.

Not only has it been shown in actual reformatory work that a large proportion of the unfortunate girls can be restored to a normal and useful life, but the study of the conditions under which the vicious practices arise makes clear that a proper training and safeguarding of inexperienced girls at the critical age would destroy this most deep-rooted of social plagues at its very roots. What is true of the social evil, is not less so of those other baneful influences which destroy the individual life and vitiate society.

To give the child a fair chance to grow up under normal and helpful conditions has become obviously the solution of social ills. More progress in this direction has been made during recent years than for centuries previous. Ampler provision for supervised rational amusements in the cities, and extension of the vocational training so that girls, as well as boys, can become economically independent will check the evil at its tap-roots. In the light of the new facts no case can be regarded as hopeless. The "age of the normal child" will convert into reality what the poet, Tennyson, foresaw as the "larger hope"—that

> **" . . . . Not one life shall be destroyed**
> **Nor cast as rubbish to the void,**
> **When God hath made the pile complete."**

ADDENDA

Special acknowledgments are due to Otto T. Mallery and to Joseph B. Thomas, for constant, most effective aid in preparing the materials for this study; also to Ernest L. Tustin, president of the Board of Recreation, Philadelphia; to Edwin D. Solenberger, secretary of the Children's Aid Society, and to Albert Cross, managing director of The Child Federation, for aid in securing the cuts used to illustrate the work.

Explanatory Notes: (1) The "Frontispiece," (from the Board of Recreation, Philadelphia) is taken from photograph of an actual scene at the Disston Public Playground, Tacony; (2) "How Often They Die," p. 20), (from cut furnished by The Child Federation) represents a large, inpressive model used at the Baby Saving Show, Horticultural Hall, May 1912, to indicate the frequency of infant deaths; (3) The Children's Hospital (p. 118) at Philadelphia, founded in 1855—one of the earliest of its type in the world for more than sixty years has been a pioneer in the field of specialized child-service.

In Anticipation of photographs kindly furnished by the National Child Labor Committee, New York, but from which the cuts are not yet completed, it is hoped that a fifth chapter, entitled THE CHILD AT WORK, and a completed *first edition* of the work will be ready for publication on or about December 1, 1916.

THE WRITER

Advanced Rescript

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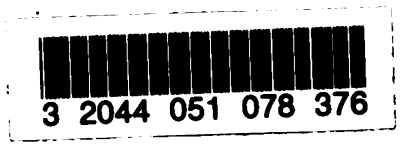

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